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# *The* Speech Teacher

A PUBLICATION OF THE  
SPEECH ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

Volume VII

Number 3

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Speech Improvement in the Elementary School *2nd* Jean C. Ervin

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A Liberal Arts Approach

Donald K. Smith

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*September 1958*

# The SPEECH TEACHER

• 1958 •

Published by  
THE SPEECH ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

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*The Speech Teacher* is published four times a year in January, March, September, and November, by the Speech Association of America. Membership dues in the Speech Association of America are \$5.50 a year, of which \$5.25 is for a year's subscription to *The Speech Teacher*. Price of this issue is \$1.50. Publication office, Artcraft Press, 10 Watson Place, Columbia, Missouri. General offices, Speech Association of America, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana. Editorial office, Room 210, School of Speech, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.

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Manuscripts of articles and correspondence concerning them should be addressed to the Editor, Room 210, School of Speech, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.

Contributors desiring reprints of articles appearing in *The Speech Teacher* should communicate with Artcraft Press, Columbia, Missouri, not later than fifteen days before the date of issue.

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# The SPEECH TEACHER

VOL. VII, No. 3

SEPTEMBER, 1958

## SPEECH IMPROVEMENT IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Jean Conyers Ervin

**S**PEECH improvement is growing in popularity. With its increasing popularity a common understanding of the term "speech improvement" is necessary, for different persons are explaining it in different ways. In an article titled "Speech Improvement for the Elementary Child" published in *The Speech Teacher* in January, 1953, Mrs. Norma Lee Lucas, an outstanding teacher of speech, defined speech improvement "as any progress made by the normal speaker in the direction of more effective oral communication."<sup>1</sup> By using the words "normal speaker" in her definition, she purposefully excluded the approximately ten per cent of children with speech defects and the possible ten per cent who have unusual ability in acting and speaking. If she had defined speech improvement "as any progress made by any speaker in the direction of more

effective oral communication," her definition would be more consistent with the classroom practice of providing experiences in speech for all children—those with speech defects, normal speakers, and those talented in acting and speaking. Children with speech defects and those talented in speaking and acting should be included. Children with defects should participate to the extent that they are able, and most are able to participate. The wise and thoughtful teacher carefully selects activities for children with severe difficulties. The child who stutters may participate easily in dramatization and in reading aloud, especially in choral reading, but may be severely punished in talking before the class. His participation in talking should be gradual and he should be subjected only to the amount of pressure he is able to accept. The child who is self-conscious because of a severe cleft palate and non-understandable speech may be helped in overcoming his self consciousness by taking silent roles in creative dramatics until he has improved his speech. The child with a speech defect may be talented in acting or speaking and participation for him may be extremely rewarding. By the time he overcomes his defect, he may be a very able speaker or actor. Children with unusual ability in speech may be functioning

As Supervisor of Speech Education, Arlington County, Virginia, Miss Ervin has developed a comprehensive program covering speech and hearing therapy, as well as in other areas. Because she feels that "many teachers of speech limit speech improvement to voice and articulation skills," she is eager to share her concept of a broader program with other teachers in the field. She has been active in the work of the Speech Association of the Eastern States and in the Interest Group on Speech in the Elementary Schools. Her Ph.D. degree is from the University of Missouri (1950).

<sup>1</sup> Lucas, Norma Lee, "Speech Improvement for the Elementary Child," *The Speech Teacher*, II (January, 1953), p. 65.

above grade level, just as children read above grade level, and for them enrichment should be offered. A child talented in acting may be less able in speechmaking, and so may need much help in making talks and participating in discussion.

The substitution of the words "any speaker" for the words "normal speaker" in Mrs. Lucas' definition implies that speech correction is a part of speech improvement. Speech correction is a necessary part of a well-rounded speech improvement program, but is the job of a highly specialized teacher of speech, not the classroom teacher. *The classroom teacher is the teacher of speech improvement.* She may have the assistance of the principal, the general supervisor, the general helping teacher, and the speech teacher sometimes called the speech therapist, the speech consultant, or the speech helping teacher. Regardless of the amount of help available for planning, demonstrating, co-teaching, and evaluating the speech experiences in the classroom, the classroom teacher is the teacher of all phases of speech improvement except speech therapy. Even in speech therapy, she has the responsibility of assisting children with minor difficulties, making referrals to the therapist, and encouraging children to use newly learned patterns of speech in the classroom.

Occasionally in a school where speech improvement is talked of for the first time a teacher may say, "How can I find time in my busy day to teach speech?" Yet as the children share personal experiences, tell stories, read aloud, report on books, learn to use the telephone, organize clubs and conduct club meetings, plan with her and in committee, learn to interview people, dramatize stories and experiences, receive help with artic-

ulation and voice, participate in assembly programs, appear on radio and television programs, and listen to other pupils and the teacher talk and read aloud, *the teacher is teaching speech.*

Perhaps in the past speaking and listening have been taught more incidentally and less conscientiously than reading and writing. When speech is effectively taught, the teacher selects, plans, and directs experiences in speaking and listening as carefully as she selects, plans, and directs experiences in reading and writing. Speech is an integral part of the total curriculum. Like reading and writing, speaking and listening are functionally related to subject matter and activities of the entire school day.

Speech can be taught well only in a classroom where children accept and respect others, where they have opportunity to communicate, and where they feel secure. Without an atmosphere conducive to communication no effort in teaching speech improvement will obtain results.

The activities which the teacher selects, plans, and directs fall into four main categories: reading aloud, dramatization, speechmaking, and voice and articulation skills. Children should have a wide variety of experiences in all four, although the fourth should be taught chiefly in conjunction with the first three. Speech should not be taught separately from subject matter or the activities of the day. In all speech activities emphasis should be placed on both talking and listening. Children should understand the different levels of listening—listening casually, listening appreciatively, listening half-way, listening for information, listening discriminately and critically. As evaluation takes place, listening should be included.

### I. READING ALOUD

Children should have experiences in reading aloud both prose and poetry; they should read individually and in unison, and tell stories they have read. Obviously stories and poems appropriate for grade level are selected and the activity planned in relation to creative writing, special holidays or occasions, or some other phase of the curriculum. As the teacher directs the activity, she encourages children to communicate. She may at times with certain children use an analytical approach and talk about phrasing, rate, the use of the pause, pitch, volume, voice quality, and articulation. In general the suggestion that children read as if talking brings good results. If children are aware of what they are saying as they read and talk and if they are eager to be understood, they experience reasonable success. Children and teacher discuss and set standards for evaluation, and during or after the activity, evaluate progress. Evaluation should include favorable comments as well as suggestions for improvement. Through reading aloud children develop skill in interpreting literature and an appreciation of it. At times children overcoming articulatory difficulties have an opportunity to practice specific speech sounds. Children enjoy sharing stories and poems they have written with the class.

### II. DRAMATIZATION

Children should have numerous experiences in dramatization. Dramatization in the elementary school should be chiefly creative play sometimes called creative dramatics. Isabel Burger in her delightful book, *Creative Play Acting*, develops a step-by-step method which the classroom teacher might well follow in helping children grow in creative play. She suggests that children begin with activity pantomime, proceed to mood pantomime and change-of mood

pantomime, and then include dialogue. The four steps lead naturally into the dramatic episode or short play and finally the group may attempt a long play.<sup>2</sup>

### III. SPEECHMAKING

Speechmaking includes informal speaking, sharing time, making talks, reporting on books, planning with the teacher and in committee, interviewing, telephoning, organizing clubs and conducting club meetings, reports in social studies and science, discussion in the class as a whole, discussion in small groups, panel discussion before the class, and parliamentary procedure. Speechmaking more than reading aloud or creative dramatics permeates the entire school day. Assisting children in developing ease and poise in speechmaking is not enough. Children also need help in choosing subjects on which to talk; gathering and organizing material for talks; planning how to begin, how to end, and how to word the purpose or central theme; and using language that is interesting and stimulating to listeners.

Children should have opportunities to progress from easy to more difficult speechmaking, just as they do in reading and writing. As they progress from sharing time in the primary grades to longer talks and reports in the intermediate grades, they should learn the principles of speechmaking. When they choose items to exhibit in sharing time, they need to select objects that are large enough for the class to see. Although a certain amount of repetition in the primary grades may be allowed, even little children should be encouraged to make talks and reports on topics on which they have gathered more information than have the other pupils to whom they talk. One of the fundamental principles of speechmaking is broken

<sup>2</sup> Burger, Isabel B., *Creative Play Acting* (New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1950).

if the pupil speaker is allowed to tell his listeners what they already know. When this happens, good listening is not possible and the speaker is not likely to feel successful or comfortable. Teachers excel in teaching children research techniques. Research for making talks, of course, involves using a number of sources: one's own knowledge, general observation, interviewing, as well as reading. The information gathered should be woven into a talk unique to the individual speaker and planned for the information and enjoyment of the listeners. Perhaps too often the student speaker is allowed to gather his information from only one source, a source to which his listeners also have referred. Each talk should have an interesting introduction, a purpose or central theme developed in a well-organized way, and a conclusion. Children should learn many different ways of wording introductions and conclusions. They should learn different ways of developing central themes into organized talks.

Most teachers assist children in learning to use time order in developing talks but are likely to neglect space order, specific instance, classification, comparison, contrast, and other forms of organization. Seldom is a discussion of ways to organize talks included in a language arts text or a language arts course for teachers. For information on this topic, the teacher must refer to books on the teaching of speech in the elementary school or to high schools or even college texts on public speaking.

Children need help in understanding the difference between written and oral language so that they can avoid using written style in presenting talks. They should use direct and specific language, personal pronouns, short, vivid, familiar words; short, straightforward sentences, and active voice of verbs.

A talk is not complete until delivered, and so children need help in presenting their talks. They need to be encouraged to stand facing their listeners, look into their eyes, talk loud enough to be heard, speak in a conversational manner, and hold objects to be shown so that they can be seen.

The child who develops ability in making talks should be able to participate in conversation and discussion with increased effectiveness, for no fundamental differences between making talks and conversing exist. Probably no area of study contributes as much to the effectiveness of the individual as speech-making.

#### IV. VOICE AND ARTICULATION

The fourth type of speech improvement activity, voice and articulation, should be taught in conjunction with other speech improvement activities, for motivation is high when a child sees that better voice and correct articulation will increase his effectiveness in reading aloud, dramatization, and speechmaking. Children can establish their own criteria for evaluation. For example, when a group of fourth, fifth, and sixth grade pupils campaigning for Student Government offices assembled to practice the speeches they were to deliver in classrooms in their school, through discussion of ways to be effective in making talks, they set up objectives by which the group later evaluated each speaker. Their objectives were:

1. Stand so that you can be seen.
2. Look at the boys and girls.
3. Talk loud enough.
4. Speak clearly.
5. Make your sounds carefully.
6. Let your voice go up and down.
7. Use gestures.
8. Have a good beginning.
9. Have a good ending.



10. Tell the boys and girls why they should vote for you for the office you want.

Through discussion, children can set up appropriate objectives for reading aloud, dramatizing, and making talks. Always they will include voice and articulation skills. By setting up the objectives, they learn what to attempt to accomplish, develop a willingness to accept criticism, and know by what standards evaluation should be given.

Because voice and articulation skills are part of speaking just as spelling and handwriting are part of writing, the classroom teacher is responsible for assisting children, even those enrolled in therapy classes, in acquiring the skills. In first and second grades a special period should be set aside for improvement of the skills. In one school a second grade class planned an articulation project around "The Old Lady Who Lived in a Shoe." They made a bulletin board on which they placed a large picture of a shoe, a picture of an old woman, and her many children, the consonant sounds. Some of the children were twins: b and p, d and t, g and k, f, and v, and others. In creative play each pupil represented a sound and used lots of words containing his sound when he talked. The children alternated roles so that those who needed practice on particular sounds could have opportunity for practice. Later they found poems for each sound and read them in unison. Then the children created poems of their own, for they had learned about rhyming words, rhythm, and sound effects. They read their poems aloud. Thus a project that began as a series of articulation lessons grew into choral reading and creative writing. When that second grade class is screened by the speech therapist in their third

year in school, she probably will find no articulation problem.

In addition to selecting, planning, and directing activities in reading aloud, dramatization, speechmaking, and voice and articulation, the teacher teaches listening and speaking by setting an example for her pupils. Just as her manuscript writing is a model for young children, her listening and speaking are models. If she listens courteously and attentively to children as they converse with her and talk throughout the school day, they are likely to listen courteously and attentively. They are less motivated to learn good listening habits if she is a poor listener. If she speaks well, they are likely to develop good habits in speaking. Learning good speech will be less easy if she sets a poor example. Children have difficulty learning to tell stories well when they hear the teacher tell stories poorly. They have trouble learning to read aloud effectively when the teacher does not read aloud well. When the teacher's explanations are confused and hard to understand, children's talks, reports, and discussion may lack organization. If the teacher's voice is monotonous, young children may imitate her and so lack variety and expressiveness. If the teacher has an articulatory difficulty, young children may imitate her. In one school not long ago, the speech therapist found five children who use "w" in place of "r" in words like *red*, *run*, and *round* in the classroom of a teacher who used "w" in place of "r." Because of the increasing awareness of the effect of the teacher's speech upon her pupils, more and more colleges and universities are requiring speech examinations of all students of education and are providing special help for those with special needs. Unfortunately many of the examinations pertain only to



voice and articulation, and do not include ability to make talks or read aloud. Personnel departments and principals are becoming increasingly aware of the effect of the teacher's speech upon pupils. The assistant superintendent in charge of personnel in a large school system said recently that he took a course in voice and articulation so that he would be better able to judge the speech of teacher applicants. Effectiveness in speaking is an asset for the

teacher and is fast becoming a professional requirement for obtaining a teaching position.

Improving one's own speech is rewarding, but improving the speech of a young child is particularly rewarding, for as a child increases his effectiveness in speaking he gains confidence, is better accepted by his group, and learns more easily. Are these, then, the reasons for the growing popularity of speech improvement?

# SYMPOSIUM ON THE TEACHING OF DISCUSSION

## I. THE DISCUSSION COURSE AT MINNESOTA: A LIBERAL ARTS APPROACH

Donald K. Smith

*This series of articles on the teaching of discussion is an attempt to bring to students and teachers certain important information on course organization, approach, teaching method, materials, and techniques of evaluation in the area. The authors are leaders in the field, all of whom have written texts and are active, successful teachers, interested in sharing their experiences.*

### I.

THE beginning discussion course at the University of Minnesota is also the terminal discussion course. To be sure, students in speech fundamentals at Minnesota do some work with the theory and practice of small group speaking. Moreover, there are courses in psychology, social psychology and sociology which consider aspects of theory related to group formation and structure, and the communication processes of groups. But there is only one course in the Speech Department, open to undergraduate students, which has as its sole focus the development of skills in discussion participation and leadership, and the development of insights ap-

propriate to such skills. This course is a single quarter, three credit course, taught to groups of twenty-five senior college students.

Now this "discussion curriculum" may seem abbreviated to some. But it is at present a considered choice by the members of the Speech Department, and not a painful necessity forced upon the Department. As we see it, good discussion embraces an ideal of purposive, rational, literate and productive conversation which is a sort of ultimate sign of the liberally educated citizen. For this reason, the ability to discuss well is not something which can be taught in a single course, or even a series of courses concerned with communication processes per se. Such ability must be the capstone of a truly liberal education.<sup>1</sup> Those of us in the Speech Department believe it appropriate that we keep in mind that we are but one Department among some twenty-six Departments of the College of Science, Literature and the Arts at Minnesota; that a concern for good discussion as an educational ideal is not ours alone, but is one we share with all Departments of the College. We think it proper that all stu-

The author is Professor of Speech and Theater Arts at the University of Minnesota, and co-author (with William S. Howell) of the text, *Discussion*, Macmillan, 1956. He completed his Ph.D. at the University of Wisconsin in 1950. He says of this paper, "The language of the article is mine; the ideas are the product of many hours of conversation with Professor William Howell, Chairman of the Speech Department at Minnesota, with whom I share the teaching of the discussion course which is here described."

<sup>1</sup> For obvious reasons of economy, no effort is made here to define fully the meaning assigned to the term *liberal education* at the University of Minnesota. At the very least such an education seeks to develop persons who use language with skill and discrimination, who have intellectual curiosity and a speculative turn of mind, who have some grounding in the various aspects of their heritage in the sciences, the humanities, and the social studies, and who have pursued at least one scholarly discipline in depth.

dents seeking a liberal education should engage in some direct study of communication processes in a variety of forms and that some students should develop an intense and scholarly interest in such processes. But we do not believe that undergraduate college students should, through early preoccupation with communication skills and processes be led to neglect their search for the substance of the humanities, the sciences, and the social studies. We prefer that our speech curriculum carry a "lean and hungry look"; that it be sufficient to do some justice to the substance which is peculiarly ours, but not so extensive as either to crowd our neighbors, or to extend our teaching beyond those insights and skills the productivity of which we believe to be well established. Our strong belief in the importance of discussion, and in the difficulty of learning to discuss well has led us to be cautious in our selection of that which we seek to teach about discussion. To put it another way, we hope that students finish our single course feeling that they need to reflect more, study more, and practice more in relation to the discussion process, but that there are some central generalizations, attitudes, and skills about discussion which they understand well enough to establish a strong foundation for such further learning.

## II.

These preliminary remarks may help to clarify the frame of reference within which we have made certain choices about our beginning" discussion course. Obviously we have sought to develop a course consistent with the general purpose of liberal education. We have also sought a course which would concentrate on the development of those understandings and skills which we believe most appropriate to classroom instruc-

tion, and most fundamental to the all but endless list of situations within which discussion operates in our society. A more specific description of the course at Minnesota and its rationale can be given by asking the questions we have raised about the course, and by presenting the answers we have given. It should be understood that these answers indicate central tendency in the way in which we teach the course. To the present time, our teaching procedures and materials have been varied in almost every quarter in which the course has been offered, and the end of such experimentation is not in sight.

### A. *Should the beginning discussion course be considered an elementary course or an advanced course at the University?*

Our choice has been to make the discussion course an advanced offering, open only to upper division students who have taken a beginning speech course, and who have completed the "distribution" requirements in the College of Science, Literature and the Arts by taking courses in the sciences, the social studies, and the humanities. As we see it, good discussions are rare events. Students with excellent intellectual resources may lack needed skills in the processes of discussion participation and leadership, and it is our task to teach such skills. But students without subject matter resources are deficient in a way that no amount of study of discussion processes can overcome.

We prefer, therefore, to treat discussion as a rigorous and exacting study, demanding the maximum mobilization of the intellectual resources of students who have indicated by their advanced standing in the University that they have such resources. As a "speech form," discussion can seem a delusively simple activity. Students who have studied

little, and thought little, *can* discuss problems with one another. They *can* enjoy such activity, and they *can* feel rewarded by the fellowship of group membership. They may learn certain useful speaking techniques and useful ways of relating themselves to others through the amiable activity of pooling relative degrees of ignorance. But this, we believe, is not the level at which the study of discussion ought to proceed.

B. *What kinds of insight, skills and attitudes should be emphasized in the basic discussion course?*

We tell our students that the central emphasis in the first discussion course is the development of dialectical skills and the attitudes appropriate to such skills. By dialectical skill, we mean skill in that sort of rational conversation which seeks, through the critical examination of statements, to secure maximum clarity, completeness and meaningfulness. It is the skill of securing, in conversation, a clear definition of terms, with a consequent reduction of vagueness or ambiguity on language; of extrapolating from primary evidence the generalizations warranted by that evidence; of discovering and communicating the various implications which might reasonably follow from a given generalization, or assumption; of applying evaluative standards to the generalization and inferences which appear in conversation. Attitudes appropriate to the exercise of such skills are first, *impartiality*, or the willingness to examine the implications of any and all ideas according to the same standards; second, *suspend judgment*, or the willingness to defer commitment to a given conclusion; and third, *respect for reason*, or the belief that thoroughness, accuracy and care in reasoning and the use of language will produce more useful decisions than the neglect of such discipline.

Note that dialectical skill has to do with words rather than things; with statements, rather than facts as such. For example, the presentation of primary evidence to a discussion group does not involve dialectical skill; interpreting the meaning of such evidence does. Propounding a value judgment does not involve dialectical skill; discovering the implication of such a judgment does.

You may say, "Then what you mean by dialectical skill is simply skill in applying logical principles, or in critical thinking?" The answer is, "not quite." We do not mean simply skill in reasoning, but we do mean skill in reasonable, or rational conversation. We do not mean just critical thinking, but we do mean skill in conversing critically and thoughtfully about the meaning of an assertion. We return to the ancient term "dialectic" to designate the sort of skill we have in mind for three reasons: first, this term has historically been used not to designate a set of rules, or principles for clear thinking, but to designate a type of discourse—namely rational conversation. Second, the term dialectic involves not merely the process by which individuals think critically or rationally, but the process by which through conversation thinking about matters of probability is facilitated. Third, the term dialectic comprehends that problems of probability actually originate in conversation, and are resolvable only to the extent to which people conversing can succeed in making assertions which are mutually clear and meaningful.

Upon what sort of analysis do we assert that the central emphasis of the beginning course ought to be on developing dialectical skills? Our most apparent reason for making this choice is the belief, based on observation, that the generality of college students are most deficient in dialectical skills. It may

follow that the teacher of discussion ought to concentrate attention at the point of greatest common need. In justifying the choice of emphasis for our students, we make this sort of analysis:

Three relatively discriminable types of skills seem to be involved in the discussion process. These are, investigative skills, or the discovery and communication of relevant information concerning a problem at hand; second, human relations skills, or skill in achieving a warm and stimulating inter-personal atmosphere; and third, dialectical skills, which we have already defined. It is our observation that our college students are *relatively* proficient in the first two categories of skills here named. That is, when sufficiently motivated, and as time permits, our students seem adept at digging out extensive and relevant information on the problems which they discuss. We don't mean to say that all of the discussions which occur in our classes are *informed* discussions. We do mean to say that failures in this area are not often the result of lack of skill. Moreover, if our students are like yours, they have an almost touching faith in evidence—in the power of information. Children of the age of science, they are all too quick to accept the notion that men of good will, who have access to the facts, can settle their differences and make wise choices.

But what of skills in human relations? We would not discount the extent to which persons deficient in understanding of self, or in understanding of the dynamics of human behavior, contribute to the difficulties faced by problem solving discussion groups. Some of our students posture, seek attention, and conceal from fellow discussants either willfully or through ignorance, the most fundamental sources of their own behavior. Some students lack social grace;

they are awkward and tactless in word and manner. All these students probably need help, and many times they find help through the activities of the discussion class. But we wonder if contemporary enthusiasm for the study of the dynamics of inter-personal behavior isn't in danger of being tainted by a sort of voluntaristic optimism? Can groups of people solve most of their problems even if their members act with understanding, courtesy and honesty toward one another? Even if it were possible that all men "love one another," would this, in itself, relieve the tensions and conflicts of the human condition? Obviously these questions are too big for a quick answer. But a series of observations will indicate the lines of argument we use at Minnesota to support the position that the study of the dynamics of inter-personal relations should not be the central emphasis in a beginning college discussion course. First, we find that most of our students learn quickly behavior associated with congenial human relations. For example, our discussions are permissive—so much so that foolish statements are often welcomed gladly, rather than receiving intelligent examination. Second, we observe that inter-personal conflicts are often the result of a lack of shared dialectical skill in a discussion group. Students are unable to come to a condition of understanding because of the tendency of some to populate their conversation with unwarranted assertions, and their inability to understand the sense in which these assertions need criticism. Good human relations deteriorate rapidly in the presence of ignorance. Third, we observe that groups of students often make progress toward the understanding or solution of a problem even in the presence of sharp personality conflicts within the group. Given enough "problem pres-



sure," students will work together even in the presence of a scandalous lack of affection for one another. Moreover, groups which make progress, which do a good job often discover the sense of group cohesiveness to be a product of their successful effort, rather than a cause of their success. Finally, as a more general observation, we note that the American educational system, from the kindergarten on, devotes much time to helping students acquire skill in interpersonal relations. Our students, born to a world of science have faith in facts. Born to the world of committees, group-think and the organization man, they also have faith in group life. What they seem to lack is a faith grounded in competence in the potentialities of human intelligence operating in the complex area of human problems for which there is no one right answer.

In short, those of us who teach the beginning discussion course at Minnesota believe that we observe that our students are most deficient in dialectical skill; that they are least able to perceive shortcomings in their own verbal behavior when this behavior is viewed from the point of view of dialectic; that they have less understanding of the importance of examining statements for their meaningfulness than of the importance of learning to get along with people, or of carrying out research; that they have less faith in the possible benefits of intelligent and discriminating use of language than they have in the power of facts, or the power of team work. We think that the center of attention in the beginning discussion course belongs in the area of dialectic; that is is here that our students have most to learn; that it is here that insitutions of higher learning have the most to teach. And as a sort of frosting to this argument, we think this position

consistent with the traditional role of liberal arts education in society, the cultivation of intelligence.

C. *What are the activities and teaching procedures through which such skills may be developed?*

This question may be divided into a series of sub-questions: 1) What should be the content or subject matter of discussion activity? 2) How should discussion groups be formed? 3) How should these groups conduct their activity? 4) How should the procedures and products of their discussion activity be examined and criticized?

1) We ask our students to discuss "the public problems of the educated citizen." By this we mean questions of public policy, questions of personal standards or values which have implication to the ordering of social life, and questions which propound knotty intellectual issues. Negatively stated, we hope to avoid consideration of trivial, time bound issues, however burning they may seem at the moment to some students. Examples of such "problems-to-be-avoided" would be: Should co-eds be permitted to stay out one hour longer on Saturday night? or How can we make a success of Campus Carnival? Positively stated, our students talk about matters of war and peace, of national defense, of taxation, of economics, of religion in the modern world, of crime and punishment, of educational policy, and so forth. This is a heavy diet, but it does interest most of our students, and, as we are perhaps overly fond of stating, "it *ought* to interest any student who is a candidate for a college degree."

2) Discussion groups are formed as interest groups. That is, students suggest and sift a large number of potentially discussable issues; they indicate the issues they would prefer to discuss, and they are formed into temporary groups

on a basis of those expressed interests.

It seems to us that *most* of the discussion groups in our society are "organized" by common perception of a problem. We recognize the sense in which group life in America is a projection of the search on the part of some for an "escape from loneliness," but we do not perceive the study of the sociology of the birth, life and death of groups as the proper focus of a beginning discussion course. Hence we prefer the temporary, problem-organized groups as the working unit for our class.

3) Our discussion groups have a working life of about two weeks, although the exigencies of classrooms scheduling sometimes increase or decrease this period. During this period groups of five students may have two working periods together during class time, and may meet from one to four times outside of class to carry out their work. The "problem pressure" placed on the group is that at the end of a given period of time, the group must present before other members of the class some form of public discussion, covering some portion of their problem. As a "conference group," the discussants must grapple with the usual intellectual problems of investigation, sharing information, and problem definition and analysis. As a public group, they need to *demonstrate* that their conferences have been productive. Here, they reveal the extent to which they have been successful in limiting their area of concern to a manageable problem, in discovering the significant issues which reside in their problem, and in preparing themselves to talk in an informed, analytical, clear and interesting manner about these issues.

The relative merit of public, or show-type discussion activity, versus the work of conference groups has agitated some as a pedagogical issue in the teaching

of discussion. We believe that groups get at least one sort of realistic experience in the conduct of conference groups if they meet under the pressure of a deadline, with a task to be performed. Thus, we see our groups as engaging with some self awareness in both conference-type discussion and public discussion. Moreover, we like to picture the public discussion as an opportunity for members of the group to demonstrate the extent to which they can approach the ideal of rational, purposive and productive conversation. By giving students the chance to converse at their best, we are able through close analysis to make even clearer the enormous difficulties inherent in the effort to make conversation intelligible, informed, orderly, intellectually demanding, and productive. We do not emphasize the criticism of our classroom public discussion as "shows." But since we are dealing with advanced students, we expect them to make use of their knowledge of rhetoric to the extent of making their public presentations clear and interesting for those who are listening.

Admittedly our procedures do not permit a large number of separate discussion experiences in a single quarter of work. Our students normally participate as members of three different groups during the quarter. Our emphasis is that each experience should be intensive; that it should view discussion as an arduous activity, involving research and the most searching application of critical intelligence which the resources of the group permit.

4) We ask our students to take part in a variety of critical activities designed to increase their awareness of the processes with which they are dealing. They are asked to write analyses of the procedures used by the conference groups with which they work, and of the bar-

riers encountered by these groups. They are asked to discuss and to write analyses of the public discussions which they observe. Perhaps the key evaluative activity is the close analysis by the discussion group of a recording of its public discussion. Groups meet outside of class for these playback sessions. Here the question of the meaningfulness of statements, both in isolation and within the pattern of conversation, can be given full attention.

- D. *How can students be helped to relate classroom instruction in discussion to the functioning of discussion in American society?*

We have found no easy answer to this question. Discussion takes on protean forms in American society, and the conditions under which groups are organized are even more varied than the purposes such groups seek to serve. Negatively, we have rejected the idea that classroom experiences can or should seek to imitate the most common settings for discussion in society, even if these "most common settings" could be identified. For example, much of the conference activity in our society is carried on by members of an institution. Businesses and governmental units serve as examples. In such a setting the conference group becomes an extension of the power structure of the institution which it serves. Questions of status, tradition, and the location of decision-making power all affect the ordering of conference activity. Such situations can be talked about in the classroom, but cannot really be brought into the action of student groups.

Our "solution" to this fourth and final question has been this: First, we try to drive our students in their discussion experience back on those fundamental language skills which we have called "dialectical skills." We believe

that the process of learning these skills helps develop the sort of "tough-minded" citizens who can be most useful and productive in the generality of discussion situations. These skills, when shared, we believe to be the best single guarantee of productive discussion. Second, we ask our students to study a basic text in discussion in order to gain perspective on the relationship of their classroom experiences to the world of discourse called discussion. Third, we encourage our students to observe discussions outside the classroom and to seek to perceive the way in which particular situations have conditioned the action observed.

### III.

We have, regrettably, no very solid evidence that the course we teach is uniquely productive. Most of our students seem to enjoy the course. They have a way of ameliorating the stern aspirations of their instructors and turning group activity into a pleasureable experience. They seem to be more efficient and more productive in their group work at the end of the quarter than at the beginning, but this may be simply a reflection of their increased understanding of "what the instructor is looking for." They worry about the difference between the "hot house intellectualism" of their classroom work and the lack of intellectual rigor they observe in non-classroom situations. This we believe is worth worrying about. Periodically we measure their critical thinking ability as reflected in standardized test scores, and as a group they improve on such tests during their discussion experience. But these have not been controlled measures, and we cannot claim that the improvement is the work of the course. In the final analysis we can no more prove the practicality of

this course than we can prove the practicality of a liberal arts education. We simply try to stay within the teaching of concepts which have been traditionally dealt with in the speech field, and to stay within and contribute to that tradi-

tion we call a liberal education, with its emphasis on study, on sound subject matter, on analysis and on criticism. If this tradition serves western civilization, then we believe our discussion course, in small measure, also serves.

## II. THE LABORATORY METHOD OF DISCUSSION TRAINING AT KANSAS STATE COLLEGE

John Keltner

### INTRODUCTION

**D**URING the past several years, we have been experimenting (and the word is used here in the non-technical sense) with a procedure of classroom discussion training which we might call roughly a *laboratory method*. This method has its antecedents in the human relations training laboratories and group development laboratories that have sprung up across the country in the past ten or fifteen years.<sup>1</sup> However, these laboratories are not the only source of influence upon this particular kind of training in the classroom. In fact, many classrooms, prior to the time of the development of these large laboratory programs, have approached the

This is the second in the series of articles on the teaching of discussion. The Kansas State course is described as a laboratory method by the author, who has developed this approach with the "human relations" emphasis in planning and teaching it. The differences among the Minnesota, Kansas State, and Ohio State patterns are quite marked.

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<sup>1</sup> See, *Proceedings, Human Relations Training Laboratory*, Hogg Foundation for Mental Hygiene, University of Texas (Austin, 1955, 1956, and 1957) and also *Explorations in Human Relations Training*, National Training Laboratory in Group Development (Washington, D. C., 1953).

kind of procedure which we are exploring in the discussion classroom.

This paper is an attempt to outline some of the assumptions, the training design, rationale and implications in the development of this method of teaching discussion.

### THE TRAINING PROBLEM

The principal goals we strive to achieve through the discussion course are:

- A. To develop the maximum in personal understanding of and sensitivity to the processes in group discussion.
- B. To provide as realistic a discussion setting as possible.
- C. To develop a basic orientation to the skills related to the discussion.
- D. To develop insight into personal behavior in group discussion situations.

To understand the full implications of this problem, we should be familiar with some of the basic assumptions which underly this training method.

### SOME BASIC ASSUMPTIONS UNDERLYING THE TRAINING METHOD

- A. *The most frequent use of discussion is in the informal and semi-formal private setting.*

For many years, we thought of discussion as a rather formal kind of affair. Observation of actual discussion situations reveals, however, that the greatest amount of discussion activity is in the informal setting and atmosphere. Here, in the committee meetings,



the seminars, the staff meetings, the club groups, and in numerous small and informal group settings is to be found the essential image of people discussing. This kind of setting is the focus of our training objectives.

B. "Public Discussion" is in reality a performance for an audience and requires a different approach to training.<sup>2</sup>

"Public discussion" occasions are frequent on the radio, on television or in other public meetings. However, in proportion to the number of private discussions in which an individual might take part, the number of public discussions is relatively few.

Further, the public discussion itself is, in essence, a "production." Because of this it requires production criteria, special direction, control and structure, that often have very little to do with the nature and dimensions of the problem or the discussion group itself. It is more concerned with stimulating an audience or improving a certain amount of information to it. In contrast to this, the private, informal discussion requires a considerably different orientation and treatment.

C. Skill in discussion requires an understanding of the dimensions of group life surrounding the discussion situation.

One cannot develop the most effective discussion skill unless he first understands some of the factors and the forces that are operating within the discussion group. For a long time we have tended to train people to perform certain skills and do certain overt acts. We have assumed that these overt acts, superficially applied to any group situation, will automatically bring specified

kinds of results. A little experimentation has shown that this is not quite the way it works.

For example, any particular act such as summarizing or the presentation of evidence, etc., may or may not be effective in assisting the development of a given discussion. The effectiveness depends a great deal upon the peculiar nature of the group into which this act is introduced and also the particular time in the life of that group when this act is performed. A summary which is highly essential and helpful to a group at one time may have the opposite effect at another time.

We have also discovered that the timeliness of a summary is not entirely a matter of the logical flow of ideas occurring in that group. It also depends upon a great number of psychological and sociological factors that are present in that group at a given time. Therefore, until we understand some of the dimensions of group life, the skills of group discussion can be nothing more than imposed, artificial procedures. Further, any training method we devise should be based upon such understanding.

D. Skill in discussion is derived from discussion experience in a realistic setting.

Discussion skill may be developed in a setting where a person must deal with a certain degree of reality. Festinger, in his *Studies in Social Communication*, has referred to what he calls the "reality" levels of communication.<sup>3</sup> In discussion training we are assuming that skills in the techniques of informal group discussion do not necessarily transfer from experiences in a non-realistic, pseudo-formal or pseudo-realistic atmos-

<sup>2</sup> See John Keltner, *Group Discussion Processes*, Longmans Green & Co. (New York, 1957), Chapter 2.

<sup>3</sup> Leon Festinger et al., *Theory and Experiment in Social Communication*, Office of Naval Research (Washington, D. C., 1950), p. 4-17.

phere. For example, how close to reality could an imposed classroom discussion of the economic crisis be unless the members of that group were themselves, *in their own perceptions*, deeply involved in this crisis?

Discussion which occurs as a result of the *perceived needs in a given situation* is the kind which is "realistic." Therefore, this is the area in which we need to develop the greater degree of discussion skill.

Underlying this assumption is the principle that one cannot automatically superimpose upon these realistic discussion situations, formal public technical skills and procedures. The twists and turns of the informal situation, the pressures of the moment, the cross-fire of the personalities, etc., tend to make this informal situation much less responsive to formal, standard techniques. Thus, the development of skill is not just the development of a facility of *manipulation* but, it is the development of a skill in *adjusting* to and *creating* procedures that are significantly related to the specific moment of discussion. Thus, one of the basic skills that might develop from this whole process is truly that of *inventing* procedures.

E. *The development of understanding and skill in a discussion process requires an intellectual posture which allows for critical process analysis.*

This point is consistent with most of the discussion courses across the land. Before the trainee can develop skills and understandings, he must first learn to assume an attitude roughly parallel to that of the scientist in his laboratory. He must examine and analyze the discussion processes to learn why they occur, the effects that they have upon the working of the group and their implications for future groups. He needs to

examine also his own behavior as well as the behavior of others in the group.

This assumption makes it necessary to devise a training system which will provide the maximum amount of opportunity for individuals within the discussion class to be self-critical and analytical.

#### THE TRAINING SETTING AND RATIONALE

We have attempted to devise a kind of setting adapted to classroom procedures that could provide the maximum return in terms of the objectives and assumptions above. Human relations training laboratories have definitely influenced our concept of training and our classroom organization.

An examination of the training rationale of the *Human Relations Training Laboratory* or of the *National Training Laboratory in Group Development* reveals certain important characteristics. One is isolation. In the large laboratories, the delegates are brought into a training setting which is relatively isolated from the rest of the community. Here the delegates live and work together for several weeks as a unique group. Thus the forces and characteristics of community life are in a sense recapitulated, and the training setting itself assumes a realism which is difficult or almost impossible to achieve in the classroom.

We have tried, however, to achieve in the classroom a certain degree of group unity that may be even more practical than in the large laboratory.

#### 1. THE GROUP PROCESS LABORATORY

##### a. *The Process Group Period*

The heart of the classroom training program is built around the laboratory period devoted to what is called the "process group" activity. This portion of the course is approximately one and

one half hours in length and is scheduled once each week.

This group setting is technically an "ambiguous" one. That is, there are no instructor-prescribed tasks regularly assigned to the group for this period. The group is expected to proceed at its own speed along whatever lines it devises. The instructor in this period performs the role of a "process analyst." That is, he is not concerned with the *content* of the discussion during that period, except as it is related to *process*. His contributions are in the form of intervention from time to time in which he comments upon the procedures that are being employed by the group.

#### b. *Process Analysis Period*

Immediately following the process group period the instructor leads a half hour analysis of the procedures and the processes that occurred during the laboratory period. During this time the group attempts to identify the areas of process phenomena which were represented during the day and tries to select those areas that represent the greatest need of understanding and skill development. For example, in a given day, the group might have had considerable difficulty in some of the aspects of communication. Time and again, communication faults may plague the development of the discussion. In the process analysis period, this need would be brought to the center of attention, and the problem of communication listed as one of the areas that the group would need to explore.

The process group period and the process analysis period taken together, run approximately two hours and represent one class meeting per week. Since the course is for three hours credit, we break the time into a two-hour session and a one-hour session.

#### c. *The Training Rationale of the Process Group Period*

The process group itself is a peculiar invention growing out of the human relations training laboratories. Blake and Mouton describe the process objective as, "... concerned with analyzing and learning to manage difficulties which occur among people who are engaged in joint problem solving activities."<sup>4</sup>

The significant characteristic of this process group is that it provides an opportunity for the individuals in the group to examine many different aspects of group and individual behavior without the resistance and without the defensiveness that might normally rise in work settings. Here is the kind of unthreatening atmosphere where weaknesses in group process can be explored without fear of institutional reprisal or academic failure.

It might be well to describe briefly the manner in which a process group is usually started. The setting is in the classroom. The group is arranged around a large table or a series of tables arranged in a square or in a circle. The size of the group usually does not exceed 12 or 13 members. The trainer (instructor) is seated with the group and begins the session by suggesting that in every group situation where people meet together to solve problems, there are several ways of getting started: devise an agenda, get acquainted with the various members of the group, discover the interests of the group and why various members are taking this course, etc.,

Usually, a recording machine is installed in the room and a microphone is placed in the center of the table.

<sup>4</sup> Robert Blake and Jane S. Mouton, *Theory and Practice of Human Relations Training*, Hogg Foundation for Mental Hygiene, University of Texas (Austin, 1955), p. 26.

Quite naturally, the trainer may call attention to the presence of this instrument, indicating its possible uses. Therefore, one of the things that the group often wishes to discuss is whether or not it wants to employ the recording machine and the ways in which the records can serve the group.

The trainer usually then suggests that there may be other possibilities the group might use in order to get started, but that this group certainly will have its own way of doing things. Furthermore, it should feel perfectly free to move ahead in whatever fashion it wishes. At that point, the trainer stops.

The immediate result, of course, is an expectant silence. The group members, traditionally schooled in a dependency relationship to instructors, will wait for the trainer to continue or to proceed to tell them what to do and how to do it. His continued silence soon suggests that he does not intend to do that at all.

Following this, it is quite common for group members to try to persuade the trainer to tell the class what to do. Members of the group may ask him what other groups have done, what method of getting started he would recommend, etc. Some members may even become highly critical and openly abusive towards him for "abdicating his responsibility as a teacher."

To these efforts the trainer gives no response except perhaps to suggest that the group may choose its *own* procedure, or that each group is a significantly unique set of people and thus no two groups could be expected to proceed in a similar fashion. The attempts to draw the trainer back into a directive role are indications that individuals are exhibiting considerable dependency upon instructor direction. This is perfectly normal, of course, and this initial shock

resulting from trainer withdrawal is inevitable. Such dependence is what the process group setting is designed to dissolve so that, as much as possible, a suitable work setting for independent creative activity can be established.

This type of a setting has been described by Blake and Mouton in the following manner:

By allowing the group to establish procedure for formulating its own agenda rather than providing it with the means of preparing one, the leader creates a situation where ordinary protocol for solving problems within a group no longer applies. The group is ready to work but has no explicit agenda to serve as a basis for interaction. Such a situation provides the group an opportunity to observe the way it goes about defining the problem on which it will work. With no prescribed agenda and no previously established set of rules for creating one, the group can study the way it solves the problem of deciding what it will do. This simple procedure represents one of the few means which enables a group to study the way it functions.<sup>5</sup>

Soon, however, the group will seize upon some method of procedure and will set out. Often the method may not be too productive or when a particular task is completed, the group may be at a standstill until some other suggestion comes along. Here, of course, is where the trainer begins to play a vital role. The manner in which he handles himself and the nature of his interventions are of supreme importance. Obviously, however, some reaction to the trainer and the method is to be expected. Weschler, Tannenbaum and Zenger describe it this way:

It usually does not satisfy the initial expectations of the trainees. Often there is considerable hostility toward the trainers, who are displaying 'poor' leadership by letting the group do what it wants to do. . . . There is a tendency for groups at the initial stages to push responsibility for their progress on to the trainer. There are attendant costs to the trainees in

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 27-28.

doing this. By putting the trainers in a position of making decisions for the group, establishing goals, and setting group values, the trainees involvement in the training process is reduced. Therefore, the trainers try to keep maximum responsibility for determinations affecting the group itself with the trainees.<sup>6</sup>

#### d. *The Role of the Trainer in the Process Group*

Different trainers handle the process group situation in different ways. Each person seems to have his own unique approach. The trainer's personality, his theory of training, the skills and varying degrees of discussion competence which he himself has, all determine the manner in which he operates as a trainer.

In our classes we strive to develop the concept of the trainer as a "*process intervenor*." This function is essentially a role of calling attention to the method being used by a group. As we said before, the trainer should not, in our way of thinking, be concerned with the content (subject) of the discussion, unless that content has a particular relationship to the process of the group itself or the procedures that the group is using. The trainer's role in this sense is essentially that of helping the group to perceive its *own* process, and to become self-critical and analytical of the processes that are going on in that group as it attempts to deal with its various problems.

The manner in which a trainer proceeds to do this is a highly personal thing. Some trainers serve very nicely in a *catalyst* role, others in a kind of *counselor* role.

Weschler, Tannenbaum and Zenger describe the situation in the following way:

<sup>6</sup> Irving Weschler, Robert Tannenbaum, and John H. Zenger, *Yardsticks for Human Relations Training*, Adult Education Monograph #2 (Adult Education Association, 1957), p. 13-14.

Each has his own personality, his own theories of training, and different skills in varying degrees of competence. Some act as catalysts; others as sources of wisdom; some as counselors; others as teachers. Some respond to the overt, conscious needs of their trainees, others to what appear to them as more significant unconscious wants and drives. Some actually do what they think they do—others give lip service to one mode of operation while actually performing in another. Some are blocked by their own personality from helping their trainees face up to similar problems within themselves.<sup>7</sup>

The important extrinsic problem that the trainer faces is *when* to intervene and *what* to say in the course of that intervention. On the one hand he does not wish to disturb too greatly the discussion situation in terms of the content being developed. On the other hand, he wishes to help the group become sensitive to and to assume greater responsibility for its own method of operation. Consequently, from time to time, he will raise issues about the process, ask questions about process, and call attention to certain techniques that have been employed.

Interventions sometimes may occur frequently during the course of a given process session; sometimes they may not be made during the course of the entire meeting. In general, interventions appear to decrease as members of the group become more sensitive to the process itself and begin to assume their own responsibility for calling attention to process factors during the course of the group work.

The role of the trainer in this process training group is a subject of great study and concern at the present moment. It is impossible in the space here to explore this role to any great depth. However, one important point of view that the trainer must maintain is that he

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 16.



should at all times provide a kind of emotional support for the members of the process group so that they may look at themselves and their own processes without the threat of failure or without the dangerous implications of the outside work situation. He needs to help in establishing an atmosphere of permissiveness and an opportunity for the members to become involved in the total experience of the situation. He needs also to provide an opportunity for members to experiment with new or different ways of doing things.

Thus, the role of the trainer is an extremely delicate and difficult one. Unless one is fairly well orientated in relation to his own personality and its relationship to people, and is fairly well steeped in the theory and procedure in group processes and in the dynamics of group life, it might be rather dangerous to attempt the training role. This, however, is not meant to discourage people from attempting this role, but merely to set up some of the criteria on which a trainer must build his own work.

#### *e. Discussion Content versus Process*

One of the issues that arises constantly is the subject or the content for discussion. That is, *what should the group discuss?* In early courses we experimented with assigning discussion topics. In later years we have allowed the groups to select their own topics and then organize discussion meetings on these topics.

For example, many of the groups seem to want to talk about such topics as the campus parking problem, campus politics, the athletic conditions on the campus, etc.

It is significant that a group in this setting will immediately confront the real issue of having some subject or topic *worth* discussion. This is an im-

portant issue, but one in which the trainer does *not* become involved. He allows a group to find its own content because this is an important area of independence which the group itself must perceive. This freedom is essential if the group is to discover the problems in finding topics, establishing agendas, and really developing problem solving. Moreover, when the group finds its topic area, the trainer still keeps away from discussing content in his interventions.

Infrequently, we find training groups that turn quickly to discussing the process through which they are currently passing. This usually comes very slowly and often with considerable effort. But, when a group reaches the condition where it can do this type of analysis the involvement and the intensity of the work takes on added significance. In this case the group will discuss the communication of individuals in the group, inter-personal feelings, etc. Gradually an increasingly sensitive perception of process begins to emerge. This is often combined with a greater amount of freedom in examining different points of view represented by the members of the group. Thus, in this kind of training we consider the process itself not an inconsequential matter and therefore a content worthy of discussion. Eventually, however, the group must find some other type of task or content with which to operate in order to test out its process skill. This does not mean that the trainer premeditatively introduces some such content into the process. Usually, the group, as it develops its own standards, will discover that it cannot proceed effectively without a reasonable and practical problem, and therefore will seek to find such a problem as a subject for discussion. This then repre-

sents a valuable development arrived at through actual experience and insight.

## 2. THE THEORY-DEMONSTRATION PERIOD

### a. *The Function of Theory*

One of the important aspects of this course is the necessity of providing a certain amount of theory and information that will give additional insight into discussion group processes. Several sources of information are available. A text is provided, lectures are given, and research materials are made available to the members from time to time. The topics usually selected in the course of a semester are more or less constant. Variations in time and emphasis occur from semester to semester and from group to group. The general theory needs, however, are more or less constant.

Such topics as the following have been called upon for explanation through lecture and demonstration: communication, problem solving, leadership, inter-personal relations, functional roles, processes of reasoning in group discussion, dependency and interdependency in group process, dealing with hostility and conflict, agenda making, getting agreement and consensus, the individual versus the group, group cohesiveness, problems in conformity and uniformity, etc. Each of these topics may be presented in lecture. Frequently demonstration materials and visual materials are brought in. Each time one of the topics is presented, it is accompanied by a bibliography of collateral readings which give the trainees an opportunity to explore in greater depth the ideas presented by the trainer.

### b. *Organization and Development of the Theory Period*

The theory period takes one-third of the work time each week or one class meeting hour. The theory is of two types; *didactic* material which suggests

procedures, rationale and analysis of the problems of process; *research* material, which contains reports from studies drawn from many sources providing information relating to the undertaking of group discussion processes.

Demonstration is also a part of this theory session. Here such devices as role-playing, case study methods, skits, audio-visual demonstration, etc., are used to show the practical application of some of the theory that is being examined.

It is important to remember that the subjects of the theory session are determined by the areas of process which represent critical needs in the process group laboratory session which occurs previously. No theory is presented without first having the issue or the problem around which it is to be built actually located and identified as an issue in the process group. Thus the didactic and research materials are tied in with the actual experience that trainees have had in the process group.

## THE TASK SETTING

The academic setting imposes the necessity for grades for students and some kind of precise evaluation procedure. Unfortunately, this has been a point of considerable irritation because many things that we do are not essentially subject to rating or grading. Also, grading or rating the things that are being done restricts and smothers the full development of individual insight and skill. However, to meet grading obligations, we have imposed several fundamental tasks that are expected of the individuals and the groups during the course of the semester.

One of these tasks is a *term paper*. Information on this project is presented to the class at the beginning of the semester. Term papers are written by

teams. These teams must consist of at least two people.

The term paper work is done outside the class and little or no effort is made to draw it into the meeting time of the regular class period. All papers are presented to the class at a special meeting at the end of the semester.

This kind of assignment has several values. In the first place, the fact that it is a team assignment results in some interesting group process problems. Members of the group find themselves extremely stimulated in working together on these projects. There is also a frequent problem of integrating individual work into the team effort without sacrificing the work of the individual.

Papers that have come out of these groups appear to be quite superior to individual papers submitted in similar type classes. Many of these papers are experimental type projects. The team approach to designing, organizing and administering such a project appears to be quite a valuable experience.

Another problem that is frequently assigned, although it may not be a legitimate one, is that of *determining the bases on which the members of the group are to be evaluated*. At the beginning of the semester the class is told that no system of evaluation has been established other than a final examination and a term paper. Further, the group is informed that the manner of grading the term papers has not been established and the responsibility for doing this rests with the group. Examinations are developed and graded by the instructor, a standard procedure.

Students, however, are instructed that the method of evaluating participation, the weight of participation versus term paper and examinations in determining the final grade, etc., will be up

to the class to decide. After this initial explanation is made, the instructor does not mention the matter again. The group may assume the responsibility of dealing with this problem immediately or later in the course. This depends upon the nature of the group and the results are usually different each time.

Throughout the semester books and pamphlet materials are called to the attention of the class members. Whenever possible, members are taken on excursions to observe conferences, staff meetings, committee meetings, and any kind of meeting where discussion processes are at work in organized and unorganized settings.

#### IMPLICATIONS OF THIS LABORATORY METHOD

The broad scope and the implications of the method cannot be set down in one short article. They might be summarized as follows:

1. A setting is provided wherein the trainees may become analytical of their own processes in a unique system which has within it many of the dimensions of actual group life.
2. Basic processes and individual awareness of these processes are stressed in such a way as to effect the deeper understandings of human relations that are at the very heart of the discussion process.
3. The system is infinitely flexible in regard to the needs of a given training group. As the groups' needs change or as different groups have different needs, the process and the training content change.
4. A heavy responsibility is placed on the trainer. This is a very significant point. The trainer himself must be thoroughly schooled. He must be an avid student of human relations and must be deeply interested in the

research and investigative aspects of the group discussion processes. One thing that we have learned is that the business of discussion is indeed dynamic and the trainer must keep refreshed constantly with new information and current research.

5. The method provides a basic understanding which prepares the student for advanced work in discussion and group leadership as well as for broader human relations training in related fields. Those students who have gone through these courses have come back for advanced work and have carried on with distinction.
6. The method also provides insight and understanding which assist students in their vocational activities. There are many instances where students have testified concerning the value of the insights and experiences in understanding work situations in which they find themselves.
7. The course does not aim to provide the student with "gimmicks" for manipulating discussion groups. In-

stead, the course aims to develop understanding and sensitivity first, and then provide encouragement to the individual to invent and test methods and procedures according to the needs and demands of ever-changing situations. Thus, the skills developed are those which have highly personal characteristics and cannot be placed in any set of categories as far as we now know.

#### CONCLUSION

In essence, this method of teaching discussion is in the growing "human relations" tradition. While we must admit that we are still in the primitive stages of the development of the training theory, we believe that we may be exploring an educational method which may have significant implications. Our major objective is to assist in releasing the infinite resources of people so that they may have greater impact on the community. The method is difficult as far as the teacher is concerned but this difficulty alone is sufficient challenge to explore the possibilities.

### III. EVALUATION OF PERFORMANCE IN THE DISCUSSION COURSE AT OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

William E. Utterback

THE elementary course in discussion at The Ohio State University, meeting five hours weekly and enrolling each quarter from 80 to 140 students, does not differ in purpose and scope from similar courses taught elsewhere. It is designed to impart the knowledge of method and to develop the attitudes and skills favorable to effective participation in problem-solving discussion in small groups, consideration of leadership being reserved for a more advanced course. Among the attitudes inculcated are thoughtfulness in discussion, open-mindedness, a cooperative spirit, independence of majority influence, and concern for the group product. Theory is presented by means of a textbook, collateral reading, occasional lectures, and classroom discussion.

Three days each week are regularly devoted to practice in discussion in small groups on problems prepared by the staff. Only in connection with this practice and its evaluation does the course present any novelty.

#### PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

During the first six weeks of the course four short problems are discussed

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during a class hour; later in the course, one more difficult problem is discussed per hour. Each problem narrates an incident or states a situation calling for decision. At the close of each problem five numbered solutions are listed, all of which have merit and may be expected to appeal to some students but one of which, the "preferred" solution, is known by the staff to be the best in the opinion of experts well qualified to judge. The group's task is to select the best of the five solutions. As the problems are selected randomly from a large stock, they do not differ in difficulty from one week to the next.

A few of the problems deal with practical applications of logic to every day life, but most are concerned with communications in industry, human relations in industry, ethical problems in the practice of psychology, and ethical problems encountered in campus life. None involves special knowledge not possessed by the average student. Some of the problems were prepared by the staff and a few others by students, but most of them were drawn from one or another of the following sources: Frances and Charles Drake, *A Human Relations Casebook for Executives*, 1947; Henry Cruickshank and Keith Davis, *Cases in Management*, 1954; William McLarney, *Management Training*, 1952; Robert Dubin, *Human Relations in Industry*, 1951; American Psychological Association, *Ethical Standards of Psychologists*, 1953. Originally those who



formulated the solutions and determined which was the best were subject-matter experts in the particular field, that is, economists, psychologists, etc. More recently the opinion has prevailed in our department that the most satisfactory "experts" are the instructors who teach the course. Like the students, they are amateurs in the subject-matter of the problems, but presumably are more mature, of better judgment, and more skilled in discussion. When new problems are now developed, the staff devotes a session to formulating the five solutions and deciding which will be the preferred solution.

When the greatest care has been taken in preparing problems, it still is necessary to evaluate the problems as they are used. At the close of each practice day each instructor, for each of the problems used that day, turns in to the supervisor of the course a statement of the number of his students who selected each solution before and after discussion, and these statements are combined. When the resulting data indicate that 60% or more of the students chose the preferred solution before discussion or that discussion had no tendency to move opinion toward the preferred solution, the problem is revised or discarded. The staff thus accumulates in a few years a considerable stock of satisfactory problems.

#### CLASSROOM PROCEDURE

On a typical practice day, when four problems are to be discussed, the classroom routine is as follows: As students enter the room, each consults the bulletin board for assignment for the day to a group of about seven. The composition of the groups is changed daily, so that the same group never meets twice. One member of each group is designated as the clerk. He does not vote or participate in the discussion. At the begin-

ning of the hour he picks up from the instructor's desk a copy of each problem for each member of his group, a sufficient number of pre- and post-discussion ballots, and a form on which at the end of the hour he will report to the instructor on the result of discussion in his group.

At a signal from the instructor the clerks distribute to each group member a copy of the first problem for the day and a pre-discussion ballot. The student has two minutes in which to read the problem and indicate on the signed ballot his pre-discussion choice of best solution. The groups then discuss the problem for seven minutes, the instructor acting as time-keeper. At the end of that time, each student indicates on a signed post-discussion ballot his choice of best solution. The clerk collects the copies of the problem and the ballots, distributes the second problem for the day, and so on through the hour. At the close of the hour, each clerk reports, for each of the four problems, each group member's pre- and post-discussion choice of best solution and turns in to the instructor all copies of the problems used so they will not circulate on the campus.

While discussion is in progress, the instructor listens to one group after another. He does not interrupt the discussion but may make notes for use in criticism and suggestion either at the end of the hour or on the fortnightly day of evaluation. He does not announce what were the preferred solutions until the following day, so a knowledge of them will not leak to sections of the course meeting later in the day. (All sections use the same problems on each practice day.)

At the beginning of the term students are given the following advice regarding

## STUDENT'S RECORD SHEET

## SHIFTS

R-W	Z	ZZ	ZZ
W-W	ZZZZ	ZZ	
W-R	ZZZZ	ZZZZZ	ZZZ
R-ns	][[[[ ]]]]	[[[ZZ[[[Z	[[[[[[[[[[ZZ
W-ns	[[[	[[[	]]
	(20)	(20)	(17)

## GROUP SCORES

4	////////	//////////	//////////
3	//	//	/
2	////	///	////
1	//		
0	////	////	//

## SUMMARY

Pre-	50 (12/26)	50 (15/26)	70 (2/25)
Post	60 (9/26)	70 (5/26)	75 (5/25)
Group	2.3 (9/26)	2.6 (8/26)	3.0 (3/25)

the evaluation of their performance in discussion:

Once each fortnight we will devote a day to evaluation of your performance in discussion during the six preceding practice days. At that time you will receive three grades, or class rankings, on your performance. The first will be based on the proportion of times you chose the preferred solution before discussion, for you are learning how to study a problem thoughtfully before plunging into discussion. The second will be based on the proportion of times you chose the preferred solution after discussion, for you are learning to listen open-mindedly and profit from discussion. The third will be based on the percentage of members in your groups who chose the preferred solution after discussion, regardless of whether you agreed with them, for you are learning to assume re-

sponsibility for the quality of the group product.

At the end of the day the instructor transfers the data from the clerk's reports to permanent individual record sheets, one for each student in the class. This record sheet contains space at the top for the student's name and for grades on quizzes, special reports, the mid-term examination, the final examination, and for the final course grade. The remainder of the sheet is set up as indicated below, the sample looking as it might at the end of the third fortnight. The symbols in the upper half of the first column, indicating the possible

ways in which the student may have shifted or failed to shift during discussion in his choice of solution, have the following meanings: R-W, right to wrong; W-W, wrong to wrong; W-R, wrong to right; R-ns, right no shift; W-ns, wrong no shift. The number of tally marks opposite each symbol indicates the number of times the student experienced that particular kind of shift, or failure to shift.

Thus, during the first fortnight, in a total of 20 discussions, the student, whose record sheet is reproduced above, shifted from the right to a wrong solution once; four times he shifted from one wrong solution to another; four times he shifted from a wrong to the right solution; eight times he started with the right solution and held to it; three times he started with a wrong solution and held to it. The short horizontal bars at the top and bottom of each tally mark have the following meanings: a bar at the top of the tally mark, if it projects to the left, indicates that before discussion the student was a member of a minority (possibly a minority of one); if the bar projects to the right, it indicates that before discussion he was a member of a majority. Similarly, a horizontal bar at the bottom of the tally mark indicates that at the close of discussion the student was a member of a minority or of a majority, according as the bar projects to the left or to the right. Adding these bars to the tally marks when transferring the data from the clerk's report takes little time and often throws much light on what happened.

The tally marks opposite the group scores (4,3,2,1,0) indicate the number of times the groups of which the student was a member achieved each of these scores during the 20 discussions, a score of 4 indicating that from 80% to

100% of the members chose the preferred solution at the close of discussion, a score of 3 indicating that from 60 to 80% chose the preferred solution after discussion, etc. These group scores are arrived at quickly by consulting a table which makes allowance for different sizes of groups.

#### EVALUATION OF PERFORMANCE

At the close of each fortnight—when four problems have been discussed each practice day; less often when one problem only has been discussed on each practice day—a class hour is devoted to evaluation of performance. In preparation for this session, the instructor sets down on each student's record sheet a summary of the student's achievement during the fortnight, indicating the percentage of times he chose the preferred solution before discussion, the percentage of times he chose the preferred solution after discussion, and the mean of his group scores for the fortnight. After each of these entries he also indicates in parentheses either a letter grade or a class ranking arrived at for each category by putting the scores for all students in the class into a distribution. At the evaluation session, each student is handed his record sheet for examination. He can see at once about how well he has done in comparison with other members of the class and, after the first fortnight, also how well he has done in comparison with his previous record.

Presumably, the class as a whole should improve from one fortnight to the next as it continues its study of theory and its practice. To test whether such improvement actually occurs, at the end of the third fortnight the data for a total of 140 students in the course were assembled for study. In each of the three fortnights the mean of post-discussion percentage of right choices for these

students was higher than the mean of pre-discussion percentages of right choices (for the three fortnights respectively, 45.71 to 52.68, 48.48 to 55.60, 51.35 to 65.67). All of these differences are highly significant statistically. The amount of difference between post- and pre-discussion means increased consistently through the six-weeks period, being for the successive fortnights, 6.97, 7.12, 14.32. Clearly, the class as a whole profited from discussion during each fortnight and at an accelerating rate during the six weeks period.

The mean percentages of pre-discussion right choices for the three fortnights were 45.71, 48.48, and 51.35. The difference among these means is highly significant, and it will be noted that improvement in judgment occurred at an accelerating rate; that is, the amount of gain of the second fortnight over the first was 2.77, while that of the third fortnight over the second was 2.87. The mean percentages of post-discussion right choices for the three fortnights were 52.68, 55.60, and 65.67. The difference among these means is highly significant, and it will be noted here also that the improvement was at an accelerating rate; that is, the amount of gain of the second fortnight over the first was 2.92, while that of third over the second fortnight was 10.07. The mean group scores for the three fortnights were 2.04, 2.15, and 2.57. The difference among these means is highly significant, and it will be noted again that the gain is at an accelerating rate; that is, the amount of gain of the second fortnight over the first was .11, while that of the third over the second was .42.

For this group of 140 students, then, we must conclude that as students continued through a six-weeks period to study theory and to discuss the assigned problems, they profited from discussion

consistently and at an accelerating rate; the quality of both pre- and post-discussion judgment improved consistently and at an accelerating rate; and the quality of the group product improved consistently and at an accelerating rate.

#### INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

To justify the method it is hardly sufficient to show that it provides an objective means of evaluating performance so that the instructor can assign each student a grade or class ranking. It is more important to inquire whether instructor and student can so interpret the data on the record sheet as to learn what the student's weaknesses are and what he should do to improve. Usually this can be done with a high degree of specificity. On evaluation day, when the student has his record sheet before him, the instructor may assist him to interpret the data, and a private conference between student and instructor is always useful. But it increases the student's ability to interpret the data himself if on evaluation day he is given a substantial portion of the hour to write out a one-page critique of his own performance during the fortnight under review, addressing the critique to a series of questions supplied by the instructor and justifying his conclusions by citing evidence from the record sheet. For this purpose the following set of questions is useful:

##### *Pre-discussion judgment:*

1. How good is my post-discussion judgment
  - a. In comparison with my previous record?
  - b. In comparison with the judgment of others in the class?
2. Could I improve my pre-discussion judgment by
  - a. Reading the problem and the solutions more carefully?
  - b. Defining the problem more carefully?
  - c. Considering more carefully the criteria by which solutions should be evaluated?

*Post-discussion judgment:*

1. How good is my post-discussion judgment
  - a. In comparison with my previous record?
  - b. In comparison with the judgment of others in the class?
2. Did I profit much or little from the discussions?
3. Could I profit more from discussion by
  - a. Giving more attention to such matters as definition of the problem and the establishment of criteria?
  - b. Listening more carefully and open-mindedly to the arguments presented?
  - c. Being more independent of the majority?

*Group product:*

1. How good is my mean group score
  - a. In comparison with my own previous record?
  - b. In comparison with that of others in the class?
2. Could I help the group more
  - a. By more often being right in my own judgment at the close of the discussion?
  - b. By making more procedural suggestions regarding definition of the problem, establishment of criteria, and method generally?
  - c. By speaking up more freely and persuasively in support of my own views?

The following critique, based on a study of the first fortnight's performance of the student whose record sheet is presented earlier in this paper, will illustrate what the student should be able to do in interpreting the data on his record sheet. After examining the record sheet himself, the instructor may of course grade the student on his critique.

*Pre-discussion judgment.* I chose the preferred solution before discussion approximately half of the time. As this ranked me about midway in the class, there is room for improvement. I think I tend to grab at what looks superficially like a good solution without stopping to read the problem and solutions carefully and without defining the problem or considering the criteria by which solutions should be evaluated. A better sense of method in my own thinking might improve my pre-discussion judgment.

*Post-discussion judgment.* In the course of discussion my percentage of right choices of solution increased from 50 to 60. While 60% of right choices after discussion is somewhat better than the average class member achieved, my

own improvement in soundness of judgment during discussion does not seem very impressive. By way of explanation, I can hardly be accused of undue rigidity, as I changed my mind during 9 of the 20 discussions. But the data strongly suggest that I am too easily influenced by the majority. In three of the discussions in which I started with the preferred solution and held to it and in 3 others in which I started with a wrong solution and held to it, I was a member of a majority both at the beginning and at the end of discussion. I changed my choice of solution in 9 of the discussions, in every case abandoning my own minority view to join the majority. In four of these cases, to be sure, I moved from a wrong to the preferred solution, but in four others I moved from one wrong solution to another, and in one case I moved from the preferred solution to a wrong solution. Evidently, I should listen more critically and be less impressed by the majority.

*Group product.* While my group score is somewhat better than that of the average class member, it still does not seem very high. I would of course help the group more if my own post-discussion judgment were more often sound. But I suspect also that I would help the group more by speaking up more freely in defense of my own views. In 5 discussions in which I chose the preferred solution at the beginning of discussion and held to it, I was in a minority both before and after discussion. In not one of these cases did I succeed in bringing the rest of the group to my way of thinking. Probably I should participate in the discussion more freely.

Patterns of weakness and strength emerge quickly from the student record sheets. Some of them are familiar to any experienced instructor; others less familiar or even somewhat startling, have led at Ohio State University to some revision of the theory taught in the course. Among the more common patterns are the following: The student is too rigid; though often in error, he does not listen open-mindedly and seldom changes his mind. The student follows the majority whether it is right or wrong (and it is frequently wrong); the course now stresses heavily the importance of independence of mind. The student is a facile, persuasive talker (too often the



delight of the instructor), whose own judgment is poor, who profits little from discussion, and repeatedly leads the group into unwise decisions. The student is a taciturn member whose judgment is good, who profits greatly from discussion, and who, when he does speak, is persuasive; though he speaks seldom, he is soon at the top of the class in group score as well as in pre- and post-discussion judgment. The student is a dominant, facile talker whose own judgment is poor and who profits little from discussion but who does have a strong sense of method; when he is in the group, it defines the problems carefully and sets up criteria, with the result that the group does well though this particular student does not except in achieving high group scores.

#### APPRAISAL OF THE METHOD

The foregoing account will suggest to any experienced instructor that the method has both disadvantages and advantages, and experience with the method will in many ways confirm this judgment. Among the disadvantages are the following: The occasional instructor who finds anything quantitative distasteful will not care for the method and may not do well with it. If the instructor has a great many students in the course, he will find the daily task of transferring

data from the clerks' reports to the record sheets burdensome and may require clerical assistance. Since the group's task is to choose from among listed solutions, the method deprives the student of practice in one part of the problem-solving process, projecting possible solutions. This disadvantage seems inherent in the method.

Among the advantages of the method are the following: It provides a basis for objective evaluation of the student's performance and diagnosis of his strengths and weaknesses in discussion. Students' reaction to the method generally is good. They enjoy discussing the problems and do not question the validity of the data on the record sheets. Where enrollments are mounting rapidly, the method has the additional advantage of being suitable for use in large sections provided the room is large enough that several groups can be discussing simultaneously in different parts of the room. At Ohio State University, it has been used successfully with sections of 40, the room being large enough to accommodate five groups at one time; given a larger room, the size of the section presumably could be even larger.

Experience with the method at Ohio State University seems to indicate that the advantages of the method greatly outweigh the disadvantages.

## IV. THE USE OF THE CASE METHOD IN COLLEGE DISCUSSION CLASSES

William M. Sattler

**E**SPECIALLY during the past five years, teachers of discussion have perhaps noted a growing interest in case problem discussions on the part of some college teachers. We have found, in other words, that all teachers do not use question-type problems exclusively in their discussion classes. Yet apart from occasional indications and private experience in teaching, we are unaware of the extent to which case discussions are employed. And further, we do not know the views of teachers who have experimented with the case approach to teaching skills in discussion.

This paper is designed to answer questions which are of primary interest to teachers of discussion. But in addition, however, it is expected that some teachers of basic courses in speech and speech education will find the information to be valuable. Much of what is reported is based upon questionnaire surveys of college teachers of discussion, and of students who have used the case method in their classes. The broad questions for which answers are sought are: (a) What relevant background information about case studies and their application to discussion classes should we know? (b) To what extent do col-

lege teachers use the case method, what purposes do they have in mind, and what are the sources from which they drive case problems? (c) What claimed values and limitations of the case method do teachers feel are important? (d) What are some of the evaluations which students place upon the case procedure? and (e) What recommendations should we follow, or perhaps test, respecting types of case problems for class use?

### I.

The *case problem* is distinguished from the *question-type statement* commonly used in discussion principally because of its limited scope. For example, instead of dealing with a broad issue such as, "What courses should be included in the freshmen and sophomore curricula of our college?" the case problem would typically refer only to a specific student or selected students. We would be provided with factual data on present college requirements, administration views and plans, communications exchanged by the student, his academic counselor, and others, the student's attitudes, feelings, and goals, and possibly a number of consequences. In any event, the situation should reveal a significant problem which the student or college administration faces. A legitimate "crisis" must be depicted.

A definition offered by the late Irving J. Lee will further clarify the distinction between the *question* and *case*. "By a case I mean a narrative statement about some happening involving people. . . . It may have to do with a

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decision that was made, or one that had to be made, with a difficulty resolved or in ferment, with what people said or failed to say to others . . . with, in short, how they talked and acted in particular well-defined circumstances."<sup>1</sup> What we have, therefore, in a case is simply a specific instance or example that has been described in sufficient detail to permit the student to gain an understanding of "facts and forces" that bring about a problem.

"A good case," says Paul R. Lawrence, "is the vehicle by which a chunk of reality is brought into the classroom. . . ." <sup>2</sup> In this reference we should note that the "chunk of reality" is not a problem for which some type of answer of universal applicability is sought. This, of course, is not to say that theories have no bearing on case discussions. It is rather that theory construction, and approval or disapproval, has relevance only to a given situation, a specific set of facts, attitudes, and behavior as set forth in the case report. While more far reaching applications may be built from a given set of particulars, the idea of differences among various life situations is a fundamental feature of the philosophy implicit in the case method. Answers to issues raised in cases, therefore, should not be reached by a machine-like use of principles or criteria, for to do so would prompt one to disregard the details that often make the case different from standard or usual situations.

Besides the case study method which has been used for many years in law, medicine, and sociology, the case prob-

lem for discussion purposes has probably achieved its greatest use recently in business administration and human relations classes, and the now ever-growing supervisory training and executive development programs conducted by both colleges and industries. We have only to note the great reliance placed upon the case method by the Graduate School of Business Administration at Harvard University,<sup>3</sup> and by other business schools as well,<sup>4</sup> to see that the discussion approach to learning via case studies is widely used. Similarly, human relations courses and occasionally broader studies in social science often apply the case method for class discussion and student learning.<sup>5</sup>

Case discussions in business and psychology courses do of course have a number of objectives that are different from those sought in a discussion class. One immediately asks, therefore, does the case method as related directly to the discussion class have a history?

We find that the case approach to discussion has been mentioned in some of our earliest books on the theories and practices of group discussion. Harrison S. Elliott, for example, describes two

<sup>3</sup> See John D. Glover and Ralph M. Hower, *The Administrator: Cases on Human Relations in Business* (Chicago: Richard D. Irwin, 1949); Malcolm P. Mc Nair (ed.), *The Case Method at the Harvard Business School* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1954); and Pearson Hunt, "The Case Method of Instruction," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXI (Summer, 1951), pp. 175-192.

<sup>4</sup> *Faculty Requirements and Standards in Collegiate Schools of Business* (Columbia University, New York: American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business, 1956), p. 91, 100.

<sup>5</sup> See F. K. Berrien and Wendell H. Bash, *Human Relations: Comments and Cases*, Second Edition (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957); Norman R. F. Maier, *Principles of Human Relations* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1952); Leonard A. Ostlund, "An Experimental Study of Case-Discussion Learning," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXIV (September, 1956), 81-89; and Cyril G. Sargent and Eugene L. Belisle, *Educational Administration: Cases and Concepts* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1955).

<sup>1</sup> Irving J. Lee, *Customs and Crises in Communication* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954), p. 5.

<sup>2</sup> Paul R. Lawrence, "The Preparation of Case Material," in Kenneth R. Andrews (ed.), *The Case Method of Teaching Human Relations and Administration* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1953), p. 215.

forms the case study may take, namely, the usual narrative pattern and the narrative plus a listing of possible solutions to the problem raised in the case report.<sup>6</sup> A somewhat different, and perhaps striking, conception of the case method is offered by Fansler, who in 1934 depicted a procedure that has the essential features of the Incident Process as advanced by Pigors.<sup>7</sup> The technique of the method," says Fansler, "consists of having the historian withhold certain important information in the initial presentation of the case, and of allowing the group gradually to realize that, before they can complete the diagnosis, this missing information must be called forth by the proper questions."<sup>8</sup>

Our present day discussion texts devote varying amounts of space to the case approach to teaching discussion. The information provided ranges from abbreviated descriptions of the method to somewhat more elaborate explanations, and the inclusion of specimen case studies. Strictly speaking, however, neither the early works of Elliott and Fansler, nor our texts of today, give us a reliable index to the status of case discussions. All that we can safely say is that *case problems* are mentioned, and presumably, they are not as highly valued by most authors as *question-type problems*.

<sup>6</sup> Harrison S. Elliott, *The Process of Group Thinking* (New York: Association Press, 1932), pp. 114-115.

<sup>7</sup> Paul Pigors and Faith Pigors, "Case Method on the Spot," *Adult Leadership*, III (December, 1954), 7-8, 28-29; also "The Incident Process," *Adult Leadership*, III (January, 1955), 5-7, 30; and *Director's Manual, The Incident Process, Case Studies in Management Development* (Washington, D. C.: The Bureau of National Affairs, 1955).

<sup>8</sup> Thomas Fansler, *Discussion Methods for Adult Groups* (New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1934), p. 66.

## II.

In a survey conducted in July, 1957, data were sought that would provide us with a better understanding of the current status of the case method in college discussion courses. A questionnaire was sent to forty-three college teachers of discussion representing twenty-one states and thirty-four different institutions. With the exception of three instances, all persons addressed taught classes in discussion or in discussion and debate on a more or less regular basis. In all instances the persons included in the survey had a relatively strong interest in discussion as an academic college course. Important in this connection, further, is that eighteen of the individuals were authors or co-authors of textbooks in discussion or discussion and argumentation.

The data presented here were supplied by thirty-eight persons who completed the questionnaire from the total sample of forty-three persons. It should be noted that the sample used for this report is not necessarily representative of the practices of discussion teachers in general. A single criterion for selection of persons included in the survey was used, namely: Did the college teacher, to my knowledge, have a special interest in discussion and presumably teach discussion classes?

a. *Extent to which case discussions are used.* Two types of data represented by the use of case discussions and the per cent of discussion time devoted to case discussions were obtained.

Teachers were asked the following question with the categories for answers shown in Table 1: "In addition to the *question* statement covering college, social, or political problems, do you also use case problems for student discussions in college classes?"

TABLE 1. USE OF CASE PROBLEMS

Choices	Number of Respondents	Per Cent of Respondents
Almost Never	7	18.4
Occasionally	20	52.6
Very Often	11	29.0
Totals	38	100

A somewhat more definitive index of the use of case problems was also sought. Respondents were asked: "Estimate the per cent of class time devoted to student discussions during which the discussions are on case problems." In this connection the questionnaire also stated, "Consider 100 per cent to be the total time devoted to discussion by students."

TABLE 2. PER CENT OF STUDENT DISCUSSION TIME DEVOTED TO CASE DISCUSSIONS

Percentages—Discussion Time	Number of Respondents	Per Cent of Respondents
Zero	3	7.9
5	6	15.8
10	5	13.2
15	6	15.8
20	6	15.8
25	3	7.9
30	2	5.3
40	2	5.3
50	3	7.9
Above 50	2	5.3
Totals	38	100.2

Much disparity in teaching practices is here shown, but the data reveal that case discussions are used quite extensively by eighteen persons, or almost one-half of the respondents. These persons reported that they used from 20 per cent to above 50 per cent of the time used in discussion with case discussions. The twenty persons who reported zero time to 15 per cent, on the other hand, are in the majority and such low percentages suggest that case discussions are incidental and possibly impromptu class exercises. With the higher percentages, certainly those from 30 per cent and above, we can be quite sure that instructors give considerable con-

scious attention to the case method in teaching discussion.

Teachers who teach adult and business classes in discussion, communication, and human relations, here distinguished from undergraduate college discussion classes, reported a far different use of the case method. These respondents stated that they used from 40 per cent to 100 per cent of the discussion time with case discussions.

b. *Purposes of case discussions.* Case studies are unlimited in the subject matter that they treat just as are question statements of fact, value, policy, and procedure. Yet it is possible for teachers to exercise control over the subject matter of case studies in a way that insures learning in such fields as problem-solving, leadership, semantics, and human relations. Thus, while the teaching of discussion skills is ever our objective, it is of significance to learn whether teachers use case studies primarily to give students experiences in discussion, or whether case studies are chosen which concern special subject matter fields only.

Respondents were asked: "When you use case problems are they used primarily to give students opportunities to practice skills in leadership and participation, or are the cases designed primarily to teach subject matter (*e.g.*, discussion principles and theories, communication principles, semantics, or human relations)?"

One may of course argue that it is quite impossible to separate content from discussion skills. This point is, however, of very great importance, since some teachers may look upon themselves as persons who promote "dual" learning in discussion and in a particular subject matter area. Two-thirds of the teachers clearly indicated that the discussion teacher's task is strictly to teach



TABLE 3. PURPOSES OF CASE DISCUSSIONS

Choices	Number of Respondents	Per Cent of Respondents
Usually the subject matter discussed is <i>less important</i> than the leadership and participation skills that students are practicing	25	67.6
Usually the subject matter discussed and the leadership and participation skills practiced are <i>equally important</i>	8	21.6
Usually the subject matter discussed is <i>more important</i> than leadership and participation skills practiced	4	10.8
Totals	37	100

discussion. This position in no way suggests that subject matter is unimportant, but, rather, shows only that 67 to 90 per cent of the teachers were not teaching political science, human relations, or semantics courses under the guise of discussion.

c. *Sources of case problems.* The discovery and selection of case problems for group discussions are factors of special significance. Respondents were therefore asked, "Where do you obtain case problems for use in discussion classes?" Individuals were asked to check one or more of the sources listed in Table 4, and to give additional ones if they desired. These further sources are given in Table 5 and in the paragraph succeeding Table 5. It will be noted that many respondents checked several sources, indicating thereby that the habitat of cases varies widely.

\* Still further sources were reported by individual respondents, and these are apparently of equal significance to those already named. We have, first, additional personnel administration and human relations casebooks that were identified; second, cases adapted from law and labor arbitration; and also, *Ethical Standards of Psychologists*, published by the American Psychological Association in 1953. In a few instances sources mentioned by respondents are not classified in this report. Primarily these are "school happenings and observed situations," but it is presumed that these more properly appear in the "instructor" and "student" categories previously listed.

d. *Use of cases written by students.* Although 22 persons indicated that they used student written cases, as shown in Table 4, this source of case material

TABLE 4. SOURCES FROM WHICH CASES ARE OBTAINED

Sources	Number of Respondents	Per Cent of Respondents
Written by instructor	26	68.4
Written by students	22	57.9
From newspapers and magazines	26	68.4
From Irving J. Lee, <i>Customs and Crises in Communication</i>	16	42.1
From Norman R. F. Maier, <i>Principles of Human Relations</i>	8	21.2
From J. D. Glover and R. H. Hower, <i>The Administrators: Cases on Human Relations in Business</i>	5	13.2
From training manuals used in business or government training courses	15	39.5

TABLE 5. ADDITIONAL SOURCES NAMED BY TWO OR MORE PERSONS

Sources	Number of Respondents	Per Cent of Respondents
From discussion and conference texts or workbooks	11	29.0
From F. K. Berrien and W. H. Bash, <i>Human Relations: Comments and Cases</i>	3	7.9
From Robert Dubin (ed.), <i>Human Relations in Administration</i>	2	5.3

seemed sufficiently important to warrant further inquiry. Respondents were requested to "estimate the percentage of cases used that have been written by students." The label "student written" was defined to include both students currently enrolled in classes and those previously enrolled.

TABLE 6. CASES WRITTEN BY STUDENTS

Percentage of Student Written Cases	Number of Respondents	Per Cent of Respondents
No answer	5	13.2
Zero	11	28.9
Less than 5	2	5.3
5 to 10	12	31.6
15 to 30	4	10.6
More than 30	4	10.6
Totals	38	100.2

The following conclusions may be drawn from the quantifiable data given by the thirty-eight teachers who completed questionnaires: (1) Although there are great differences among teachers in the use of the case method, most teachers do have case discussions, and almost one-fourth of the teachers reporting devote 30 per cent or more of discussion time to case discussions. These data probably represent a current advance for the case method, but may or may not signal widespread use of case discussions in the future. (2) Cases are used primarily by most teachers to train students in discussion skills, and not to advance student knowledge in a particular subject matter area. (3) Teachers of discussion depend to a marked degree upon casebooks in business management, human relations, and communication for case problems.

(4) Relatively few teachers have a significant number of case discussions on student written problems. In fact, almost one-half of the 38 teachers reported that they do not have any discussions on student written cases.

### III.

The present section of this paper is a synthesis of the claimed values and limitations of the case method given by 38 teachers of discussion, and includes as well, interpretations by the writer. Entirely by chance, and not design, seven claimed values and seven weaknesses of the case method will be identified.

Many teachers stated that the case method permits more opportunities for student participation than is possible when all discussions are on broad question statements. It was often observed that case discussions may be held during periods when students are doing research, planning, and outlining on the subjects to be used in longer group discussions. In this respect, also, points concerning "speed" and "efficiency" and their special relationship to large classes were likewise advanced. A second commonly named value was that case discussions may be used in demonstrating or "dramatizing" principles and techniques of leadership, problem-solving, and participation. Since cases are specific and are limited in terms of content, it was felt that they are more manageable for use in illustrating principles. Further, the factual setting given in the case creates the type of situation that

lends itself to role playing. This view is reflected in the statement, "Cases and role playing provide the only way I know to make principles come alive."

The third value of the case method which many respondents noted was that case discussions introduce a sense of practicality to the discussion class. True-to-life problems, not unlike the experiences students have had or will have, provide for realism and human interest that is often missing in other discussions. Briefly stated, it would appear that "good" cases make possible a type of vicarious experience for students that has a bearing upon future life situations, and which "sometimes truly affects the behavior of students."

In addition to the three values which have been described, some respondents gave others including: (a) Cases provide a helpful variation in the class procedure which keeps the class from becoming monotonous; (b) with short or even impromptu cases students learn that they must be able to analyze and synthesize quickly; (c) students have an answerable problem with which to deal and this is sometimes not true of broad issue problems; and (d) with meaningful cases students reveal their true selves as opposed to their assumed "polite behavior" and habits of indifference shown in many discussions in which question statements are used.

As one tabulates the judgments of respondents, weaknesses or pitfalls associated with case discussions appear to approach infinity. From the fifty or more weaknesses named, however, the following are most typical: (a) We have not surmounted the basic problem of securing satisfactory cases; (b) students fail to gain needed experience, learning, and motivation that arises from investigation and research on important issues; (c) analysis is relegated to sec-

ondary considerations, and in turn, reckless inference-drawing is encouraged; (d) interest in the case often prompts both teachers and students to become oblivious of the importance of discussion skills; (e) students fail to discuss adequately the broad implications of the case; (f) by importing cases teachers are encouraged to neglect the much more meaningful "cases" that arise in the class itself; and (g) cases are "fun," a type of sophistic exercise, but opposed to scholarly pursuits—as a "faddist gimmick" they require little intellectual effort on the part of either teachers or students.

Almost without exception the questionnaires revealed that teachers experienced difficulty in securing satisfactory cases for discussion classes. Many available cases, for example, are designed for business administration and human relations classes, and these cases are not always suitable for students enrolled in the liberal arts college. But even assuming that we have acceptable cases, one must still face the problem of handling "small bite" and "large bite" cases. In the former we are given a terse account of a situation that fails to depict enough about what has happened to make it possible intelligently to discuss the issues. And at the other extreme, we have long and complicated cases with many irrelevant details which keep students from giving attention to fundamental issues. What is needed, then, is the "just right" case, which, incidentally, many teachers have not yet discovered.

The specific situation, which actually makes cases what they are, may tend to keep the attention of students centered on the incident to the exclusion of the discussion of principles. In a given case, for example, students may consider their job finished when they say, "Jones

should have told his boss earlier." With another case we have, "The meeting should not have been held without having the house mother present." Or, "They should not have moved the desks on Friday." These could be multiplied endlessly, until the student is well-stocked with hundreds of judgments on incidents of the "dog bites man" variety. "Cases are best," according to one person, "when they are used as a spring-board for dealing with applications of the issues raised in the case." Yet if the student is not expected to do research, to read books and articles, to ponder various views and theories, to analyze what he has studied, he is not qualified to deal with the larger implications of the case. He remains rooted to particulars and may be totally unaware of what they mean in terms of principles, as well as what scholars have said about these principles. The student, it would seem, is growing up too easily by following short-cuts that are inappropriate for one who has not yet studied the fundamentals of what he is discussing.

#### IV.

Reports by students who have used the case method in discussion classes give us further insight into the case approach in teaching. Near the close of the second semester of the 1956-57 school year, fifty-six students enrolled in discussion classes at the University of Michigan filled out anonymous questionnaires on the case method. The students were largely juniors and seniors, with men outnumbering women by a three to two ratio. Sixty per cent of the students were enrolled in the College of Literature, Science, and the Arts, thirty per cent in the School of Business Administration, and ten per cent in the School of Education.

Since any results of the questionnaire are affected by the presence or absence

of many conditions, some of the special circumstances need to be mentioned. The discussion time for students was divided in this manner: 70 per cent of the discussion time for students was devoted to the discussion of student selected questions on college, social, and political issues; 20 per cent of the time was used in the discussion of communication problems arbitrarily assigned to student groups by instructors; and 10 per cent of the discussion time was devoted to the discussion of student written cases and incidents on the subjects of problem-solving, leadership, or interpersonal relations in group situations, clubs, and meetings.

The student questionnaires revealed moderate positive findings favoring case discussions in three respects. Students felt, first, that case discussions were excellent for demonstrations and for teaching skills quickly; second, they approved case discussions to the extent that they were used in their classes (30 per cent of the total discussion time); and third, they reported that more of the case discussions should be held on student written cases. With regard to this point, 52 per cent of the students said "Yes—More time should be given in this class to the discussion of student written cases"; 21 per cent were "Undecided"; and 27 per cent reported "No." The good case for one-half of the students thus seems to be one they have written themselves. To this we should add that students would probably have written less acceptable cases if they had not had the experience of studying and discussing other cases.

Some of the fears expressed by teachers in the previous section of this paper appear to be realistic ones. When students were asked to compare *question discussions* and *case discussions*, their opinions show a marked pref-

erence for question-type discussions. Students were asked, "Do you believe skills in leadership and participation in discussion can be taught more effectively with cases than with student selected questions?" The replies were: 25 per cent reported "Yes," 12 per cent were "Undecided," and 63 per cent said "No." Students were also asked, "Are you more eager to participate in case discussions than in discussions in which student selected questions are used?" In answer to this question we find that 12 per cent of the students said "Yes," 11 per cent "Undecided," and 77 per cent "No."

There seem to be few valid reasons for discounting the high percentage of "No" answers to these questions. Relevant here of course is the fact that students chose the subjects for question-type discussions, while the cases were assigned to the discussion groups. This however would not fully account for the opinions expressed. One may reasonably assume, with some evidence provided by student comments, that many of the cases discussed were not interesting to the students and that some did not raise significant issues. What is more, students did considerable research on the question-type discussions which also included the preparation of an outline, whereas special subject matter study was not a requirement for the case discussions. These factors doubtless operated to develop greater student involvement in the question-type discussions, with the possible exception of student written cases which were also highly valued.

### V.

Speaking for myself as a teacher of undergraduate discussion classes, I feel that I should continue to experiment with the case method in teaching classes. At present, however, the 30 per cent of

discussion time on case studies is a limit I would not care to exceed to an appreciable extent. Adult and business courses are however quite a different matter; these types of courses, as the survey shows, make use of the case approach to a marked degree. This practice is one which I heartily endorse.

Teachers who wish to pursue the case method further as a type of teaching will be interested in a few generalizations based upon my analysis of the questionnaire, the student poll, and experiences in using case discussions. The suggestions are not given with the expectation that all readers will agree with them; rather, they should serve largely to stimulate us in efforts to improve our case studies. We should, first, prepare cases that are directly relevant to discussion and speech communication, and thus not borrow all of our cases from personnel administration and human relations casebooks. Secondly, our cases should be true-to-life depictions and should be presented with enough details to make careful analysis possible. We should, in the third place, avoid the all too common tendency to construct situations that call for an obvious answer which arbitrarily reaffirms a textbook principle. Finally, since cases that stem from the experiences of students seem to possess special merits, we should take positive steps to secure the best student written cases possible.

A few readings by persons who have done much work in the writing of case studies should also be consulted by teachers of discussion. We find, for example, an excellent analysis of the weaknesses of "armchair" cases given by James W. Culliton;<sup>9</sup> the dangers of the one-solution answer are outlined by

<sup>9</sup> "Writing Business Cases," in Malcolm P. Mc Nair (ed.), *op. cit.*, pp. 256-269.



Arthur Stone Dewing;<sup>10</sup> the sketchy case is criticized by Berrien and Bash;<sup>11</sup> a set of helpful principles to use in case writing is given by H. Walter Shaw;<sup>12</sup> and Paul R. Lawrence shows why first-hand observations are needed if cases are to be worth discussing.<sup>13</sup> Again, teachers of discussion may find some of these points of view to be questionable; it is helpful, however, to know

them and to know why the authors advanced them.

Whether the case procedure in teaching college discussion classes continues to advance in popularity is obviously dependent upon hosts of factors. And perhaps the point we should keep in mind is not *case problems* versus *question-type problems*. This study has shown that the question-type problem is widely used, and there is little likelihood that it will be displaced. Each teacher must, however, ask himself whether his course will be enriched if some case discussions are used, or if, perhaps, other variations might not be in order.

<sup>10</sup> "An Introduction to the Use of Cases," *ibid.*, pp. 1-5.

<sup>11</sup> Berrien and Bash, *op. cit.*, pp. 525-527.

<sup>12</sup> "Case Qualities and Case Construction," in *The Case Method: A Technique of Management Development* (Washington, D. C.: Society for Personnel Administration, 1957), pp. 4-10.

<sup>13</sup> "The Preparation of Case Material," in Kenneth R. Andrews (ed.), *op. cit.*, pp. 215-224.

# PURDUE UNIVERSITY'S HIGH SCHOOL DEBATERS' CONFERENCE AND STUDENT LEGISLATURE ASSEMBLY

Robert P. Friedman

ON December 6-7, 1957, more than 1100 Indiana students and teachers from 96 of the state's high schools met at Purdue University for the Twenty-Fifth Annual High School Debaters' Conference and Fifteenth Annual Student Legislative Assembly. Held initially in 1930<sup>1</sup> when 436 students and teachers from 53 schools attended, the Conference has been host to more than 23,000 students representing more than half the state's high schools.<sup>2</sup>

Over the years three basic Conference objectives have evolved: to train young citizens to (1) take a responsible and thoughtful position on significant public questions, (2) prepare themselves as speakers and leaders in the formation of public opinion, and (3) understand the concept and politics of legislative action. These objectives are served through debate and discussion events, a mock legislature, an extemporaneous speaking contest, and various special events.

Formerly an Assistant Professor and Co-Director of the Conference, Dr. Friedman was at Purdue from 1955-58. He received his bachelor's degree from the University of North Carolina, and in 1950, the University of Missouri awarded him the M.A. degree.

Appointed Instructor in Speech at Missouri in 1950, he remained there until 1954 when he received his Ph.D. Next year he returns to Missouri as Director of Debate.

High School and college teachers should be interested in his detailed account of a distinctive speech activity.

<sup>1</sup> The Conference was not held in 1943-45 because of war-time travel restrictions.

<sup>2</sup> More than 350 different high schools have been represented. Six, Elkhart, Jefferson of Lafayette, LaPorte, Central of South Bend, Wiley of Terre Haute, and West Lafayette, have sent delegations to each of the 25 sessions.

This article will explain the development and function of the Conference with particular stress being given to its current organization as exemplified in 1957's Silver Anniversary session.<sup>3</sup>

## DEBATE EVENTS

In 1930 the high school students heard teams representing Purdue University, the University of Buffalo, and Manchester College debate installment buying and unemployment insurance. Also on the program were such speakers and topics as P. E. Lull, the founder of the Conference, on "The Use of Evidence in Debating," A. H. Monroe, then as now the head of Purdue's Department of Speech, on "Debate Delivery," and W. N. Brigrance, of Wabash College, on "Disputation vs. Argumentation." Over the years demonstration debates have been held between participating teams from outstanding colleges and universities and both in-state and out-of-state championship high school teams. Speakers on debate topics have included H. L. Ewbank, Sr., Ralph Dennis, James H. McBurney, and Bower Aly. When their specialties were being debated, such men as Dr. Morris Fishbein, Samuel R. McKelvie, Donald R. Richberg, and Major Charles T. Estes were heard.

In 1957 the debate events included a

<sup>3</sup> The author will be pleased to answer questions concerning the Conference and will supply copies of the 1957 program and Legislative booklet on request. For an account of the 1946 session of the Conference see P. E. Lull, "High School Debater's Conference at Purdue University," *The Speaker*, XXIX (March, 1947), 3-8.

college and four high school demonstration debates on Foreign Aid, the current high school question, together with a prominent speaker, two debate clinics, and a discussion program on the debate topic area.

More than 500 students heard Loren D. Reid of the University of Missouri speak on the topic "The Five Secrets of Good Debating" and evaluate a debate between teams from Augustana College and the University of Michigan. Later the same afternoon most of those students attended the affirmative or negative case clinics conducted by the visiting teams' debate coaches assisted by their debaters.

On Friday morning and again on Saturday morning debates were held among the four outstanding Indiana high school teams. Teams from Wiley of Terre Haute, New Castle, Central of South Bend, and Peru were invited to participate on the basis of their records in two state-wide tournaments. The high school debaters were heard by a total of 600 students and were evaluated by members of Purdue's Department of Speech.

On Saturday morning, also, an audience of 175 heard members of Purdue's departments of Civil Engineering, Agronomy, Economics, and Military Science and Tactics recount their experiences with overseas aid programs in an informal discussion of this aspect of Foreign Aid. An open forum period followed the discussion.

#### THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY

Instituted in 1940 when 181 student Senators and Representatives from 62 of the participating high schools convened, the Student Legislative Assembly enjoyed immediate success. It not only attracted the interest and loyalty of the high school speech teachers but also

that of the teachers of government and social studies. The pressure of the increasing number of participants has brought about a tricameral legislature in the past few years.

A large share of the credit for the success of this event goes to four men, the only four men who have served as presiding officers in the Assembly during its fifteen-year history. All are former members of the Indiana General Assembly, and all have distinguished careers in public service.

The original presiding officers were Fred F. Eichhorn in the Senate and James M. Knapp in the House. Mr. Eichhorn, who served two terms in the General Assembly and was chairman of the Indiana Public Service Commission, presided over the Senate for the fifteenth time last December and is the only man to have filled that position. Mr. Knapp served the Student Legislative Assembly as presiding officer of the House for eleven years before failing health made it impossible for him to continue. Elected three times to the Speakership of the Indiana General Assembly's House of Representatives, he also has served the state as Director of Personnel.

When the increased size of the student House made it necessary to split that body into House A and House B in 1952, Hobart Creighton became the third presiding officer. Mr. Creighton, who had just completed a term as Indiana's Lieutenant Governor, was a veteran of sixteen years in the General Assembly and had three times been Speaker of its House. In 1957 he presided over House B for the sixth time.

Sam J. Bushemi, Lake County Assessor and two-term member of the General Assembly, assumed the speakership of House A in 1954 when Mr. Knapp retired. Mr. Bushemi has now presided over House A for four years.

In fifteen years almost 3500 high school students have learned their parliamentary manners and skills under these four capable friends of the Purdue Conference.

In 1957 the Student Legislative Assembly had 294 members, 82 Senators and 106 Representatives in each House. Elected in their high schools through regulations set forth by the Conference directors, they conducted their sessions under rules adapted from the orders for the Indiana General Assembly. These rules were printed in a special booklet which included parliamentary instructions and lists of the Conference officers and members of each house.

Membership in the Assembly is based on school population. Each school is entitled to one Senator who must be a member of either the junior or senior class. Representatives, who may come from any high school class, gain their places on the basis of the school census. High schools with 250 or fewer students are entitled to one Representative, 251 to 500 students may elect two Representatives, 501 to 1000 permits three, and more than 1000 students gives a high school the maximum of four Representatives.

Rules for electing students to the Assembly are mailed to the high schools in early October. They direct that nominations for members and alternates be made in accordance with plans agreed upon by the principal and the Speech, English, or Social Studies teacher. The nominees are presented to the student body for balloting supervised by the teacher or principal, and names of the elected members and alternates are certified by the principal and teacher and forwarded to the Conference along with the members' committee preferences.

The deadline for certification and statement of committee preferences falls near the middle of November some three weeks before the Assembly convenes. Committee preferences are selected from a list of five committees specified annually by the Conference directors with the advice of the presiding officers. The committees and the topics that will be discussed in them are defined by the Conference for two reasons: (1) in view of the limited amount of time for deliberation it is desirable to restrict the variety of questions to be investigated in the committee meetings, and (2) for the same reason it is necessary to restrict the number of bills to be debated in the legislative sessions.

Each year the high school debate topic is incorporated into one of the committees; the other four committees and their topics are determined on the current interest level and significance of the questions with some attempt to keep the topics distributed between problems of state and national interest.

Topics and committees for 1957 were: Direct Foreign Aid in the Ways and Means Committee, Open vs. Union Shop Legislation in Indiana in the Labor Committee, Teen-age Law-breakers in Indiana in the Public Policy Committee, Enforcement of School Integration in the Judiciary Committee, and Enrollment Problems in Indiana's State Supported Colleges and Universities in the Education Committee.

Any member of the Assembly is privileged to submit a bill for the consideration of his preferred committee with the provision that twenty-five copies of his bill be in the hands of the Director of the Assembly by a deadline date which falls about one week before the Assembly convenes.

In 1957, with each member assigned to committee in accordance with his stated preference,<sup>4</sup> the size of committees ranged from thirteen to twenty in the Senate and from seventeen to twenty-seven in the Houses. Forty bills were received for consideration in Senate committees, forty-three were assigned to House A, and forty-two to House B. The number of bills considered in Senate and House committees ranged from six to eleven.

When members of the Assembly register for the Conference all arrangements for their sessions are complete, and they are given copies of the legislative booklet. After the opening session, when the legislators are administered their oath of office, they report to their assigned committee rooms. There they begin deliberation which occupies them for four hours on Friday and culminates in the preparation of a bill on their assigned topic and the election of a spokesman to present the bill to the legislative session on Saturday. Minority reports are permitted if signed by a spokesman and members comprising a minimum of one-third of the committee's membership.

Committee sessions are presided over by Purdue students enrolled in parliamentary procedure and discussion classes. Earlier they have attended orientation meetings and have received a copy of the legislative booklet and multiple copies of the bills their committee members have submitted for distribution. When the bills are reported out of the com-

mittees they are turned over to the Director of the Assembly.

At 8:00 A.M. on Saturday the members report to their individual houses and receive their name banners and individual sets of the bills to be considered during the day. The Speaker calls the session to order, a local minister serving as chaplain offers the invocation, a Purdue student officiating as reading clerk calls the roll, a Lafayette high school business student acting as recorder notes that the session has begun, a West Lafayette junior high student hurries away in his capacity as messenger to inform the other two houses that his house has been organized, and the Speaker offers his opening remarks.

For four hours in the morning and for two hours on Saturday afternoon the speakers occupy the chair, and the student legislators debate the bills. Visitors and observers who visit the chambers hear vigorous argument from the members and instructive comments from the Speakers. When the time factor makes it mandatory that short cuts be taken, the Speakers explain how it would be done in the General Assembly and suggest a method of speeding up the deliberations.

For the last fifteen minutes of the afternoon session competent critic-judges<sup>5</sup> evaluate the day's work against a set of criteria which includes courtesy and tact, ability to get the floor, conduct after recognition, control of legislation, and contribution to the efficient procedure of business.

When the gavel falls for adjournment a weary student legislator can look back on two full days of genuinely practical experience and meaningful instruction.

<sup>4</sup> Notice is given at the time that committees and topics are listed that those who submit bills will be first assigned to their committees, and that other stated preferences will be honored in so far as possible with the understanding that committees will be kept within reasonable size limits. In our experience it has been possible to give virtually all of the students assignment to their preferred committee.

<sup>5</sup> Critic-judges were used for the first time in 1956 and again in 1957. E. Orville Johnson of Earlham College, Paul W. Keller of Manchester College, and Herold T. Ross of Depauw University served both years.



A student fortunate enough to be elected to both Houses and the Senate over a three-year span, as many have been, emerges as a competent parliamentary debater.

#### THE EXTEMPORANEOUS SPEAKING CONTEST

In 1946 an extemporaneous speaking contest was added to the regular events of the Conference. Its growth was steady, and in 1956 when 235 participants crowded the rooms and necessitated more judges than readily could be found, entrance requirements were modified to parallel those used in the Assembly.

In 1957 speakers competed in their own schools for places in the Conference contest. A school population numbering 500 or fewer was permitted to enter two speakers. Three entries were allowed from schools with enrollments of 501 to 1000, and four speakers might enter from schools larger than 1000. The school certified speakers and alternates at the same time that they informed the Conference of their legislative participants.

Topics for the contest were prepared from issues of *Time*, *Newsweek*, and *U. S. News and World Report* bearing publication dates between September 1, and November 15, 1957, and were worded in a manner that required the speaker to take sides or an evaluative position on his subject.

At 11:00 A.M. Saturday the contestants drew envelopes bearing their names. In each envelope was a sheet of paper which carried, in addition to the student's name, three topics from which he was asked to choose one's room assignments for each of two rounds of speaking, and a reminder of the regulations for the contest.

At 1:00 P.M. the speakers met in their assigned rooms in groups of nine or ten, made their five-minute speeches in an order determined by the judge, stopped at the judge's chair to have their subjects checked and their notes examined,<sup>6</sup> and at the conclusion proceeded to their next assigned room for the second round.

Purdue staff members judged the contestants in five categories: pertinence of material to the selected topic, clarity of organization, use of support material and evidence, logical analysis and insight, and delivery including language. Speakers were graded on a scale of one to forty in each category, and judges were asked to avoid scores ending in five or zero. The overall scoring system, coupled with the fact that students spoke in scrambled groups in the second round, produced a final rating with a minimum of ties.

The competitive system used for places in the contest seems to have produced two desirable effects: (1) contestants who entered the contest had worked for their places, and (2) the quality of speaking in the contest was noticeably improved over previous years when the contest was open to all.

#### SPECIAL EVENTS

Special programs and general sessions have always played a significant part in Purdue's Conference.

The opening session, attended by all students and teachers registered, has provided a stimulating beginning for the two-day event. In addition to the usual business, the session has featured two speakers: a university official, either the president or one of the deans, has welcomed the group, and a state of-

<sup>6</sup> Speakers were limited to notes that occupied one side of a 3"x5" index card exclusive of statistical data and testimonial evidence.

ficial customarily makes the "keynote" address. During the past ten years Indiana's Governor has spoken on four occasions, the Lieutenant Governor has appeared three times, the Speaker of the House of the General Assembly addressed the group once, and the State Superintendent of Public Instruction served as the speaker twice.

In 1957 President Frederick L. Hovde of Purdue made the speech of welcome, the roll of the schools was called, Conference directors and visiting officials were introduced, one of the Assembly Speakers swore in the student legislators, and Lieutenant Governor Crawford F. Parker gave the "keynote" speech.

Coffee hours, one on Friday afternoon and another on Saturday morning, provided opportunity for teachers, chaperones, and Conference personnel to visit with one another.

The 800 people who attended the Conference banquet Friday evening heard Executive Dean Donald R. Mallett welcome the students. Miss Mary Ellen Beall of Jefferson High School, Lafayette, ranking junior from the 1956 extemporaneous speaking contest, responded. Professor Monroe extended the Conference greetings as he had at the first meeting in 1930, and Miss Winnifred Ray of Wiley High School, Terre Haute, responded on behalf of the teachers as she had at the 1930 session.<sup>7</sup> Mrs. P. E. Lull, widow of the Conference's founder, was present and was introduced. And Charles P. Taft, ex-mayor of Cincinnati, made the principal speech on the topic "Should Politicians Have Press Agents?"

<sup>7</sup> Miss Ray's school has attended every session of the Conference; she missed one when illness prevented her coming, but sent her group in the charge of her sister. Her group in 1957 numbered thirty-four students and four chaperones.

The teachers' luncheon on Saturday provided an opportunity for the teachers to elect three members of their group to two-year terms on the six-man Conference advisory committee and to hear Loren Reid speak on the topic "The Lost Art of Studying."

The Conference ended at 3:30 on Saturday afternoon with an Awards Session. Members of the high school demonstration debate teams, ten outstanding members of each of the three legislative houses, and the ten ranking speakers in the extemporaneous speaking contest were awarded certificates of merit.<sup>8</sup>

#### FISCAL AND PHYSICAL FACILITIES

Obviously a conference involving the numbers and space that this one does requires considerable financial support and meeting and housing accommodations.

The conference currently derives its funds from three sources. A registration fee of one dollar is paid by each student and teacher who attends, Purdue provides an annual grant for visiting speakers and guest officials, and the Speech Department's forensic activities' budget pays for secretarial assistance and correspondence expenses.

With some few exceptions the Conference events are held in the Purdue Memorial Union where facilities are excellent.<sup>9</sup> The opening session is held in the University's Hall of Music on Friday morning, a large lecture hall in one of the classroom buildings is used on Friday afternoon for the college demonstration debate, and classrooms

<sup>8</sup> Subsequently certificates were sent to the principals of those schools which had individual award winners. These certificates were given the schools in recognition of the excellence of their students.

<sup>9</sup> Additional space now under construction and scheduled for completion in May, 1958, will enable the Conference to dispense entirely with classroom space.

are used on Saturday afternoon for the extemporaneous speaking contest. The Union's two ball rooms, three large meeting halls, and numerous discussion rooms satisfy all other requirements.

Cooperation from the Union Club, University dormitory management, and local hotels and motels has solved the Conferences housing problem. Some 800 students, teachers, and chaperones were housed under special arrangements and rates for the 1957 Conference.<sup>10</sup>

#### PERSONNEL

Much of the success that the Purdue Conference has enjoyed is derived from the interest and loyalty that it receives from the University, the community, and people over the state of Indiana.

The University administration and entire faculty respond readily to Conference requests for appearances on various parts of the program. University students give of their time and energy in preparing signs, assisting with the legislative assembly, running errands, and facilitating the smooth progress of the events.<sup>11</sup>

<sup>10</sup> The remainder of those in attendance lived sufficiently close to the University to permit them to return home overnight Friday.

<sup>11</sup> Many of the University students are veterans of the Conference, and their interest in it is sustained after they reach Purdue. Bill Redding, who graduated from Purdue in 1957, was a four-year veteran of the Conference from Logansport High School. He worked on the Conference all four years at Purdue and was in charge of student assistance during his junior and senior years.

The community also backs the Conference. Local junior and senior high schools assist in providing needed personnel, the local newspaper covers Conference events and puts information on the wire service for state-wide distribution, and local housing facilities provide excellent accommodations at reduced rates.<sup>12</sup>

Notices of the service of the Assembly's Speakers and Indiana government officials has already been made. Noteworthy also is the loyalty of the teachers and parents who yearly bring large groups of students over considerable distances. The teachers also provide assistance and counsel to the Conference through their advisory committee.

In twenty-five years Purdue's Conference has become a smoothly functioning training ground for high school students; at the Conference they have developed speaking skills and have been given training and practice in good citizenship and democratic processes.

The many persons who have contributed have made the Conference one that richly deserves its three awards presented in recent years by the Freedoms Foundation at Valley Forge "for outstanding achievement in bringing about a better understanding of the American way of life."

<sup>12</sup> In earlier years when the Conference was smaller, faculty and townspeople kept the visiting students and teachers in their homes

# A STUDY OF PRINCIPLES AND OBJECTIVES COMMON TO THE MAJOR SPEECH AREAS

Lester R. Breniman

IN common with many other fields, speech has become increasingly specialized. So much so that today, in many cases, a student takes courses and majors in one area to the exclusion of all others. And each area offers its own beginning courses for its majors. Whether as a cause or as a result, the national professional organization of speech teachers is being split into numerous groups. A number of leaders in the field of speech have spoken and written of the commonality of philosophy and teaching objectives of all areas in an effort to head off the over-specialization and breaking-up process. This led to the present problem for study—*is there a sufficient commonality of teaching materials to warrant offering a general basic course in speech for all majors in the field*, regardless of area? It was decided to poll a large sample of the speech teaching personnel in undergraduate and graduate schools of all sections of the country in an attempt to secure data which might help in answering this question.

Following considerable study of pos-

The question of common ground underlying all fields of speech has been the subject of much controversy in planning basic courses. This article reports Dr. Breniman's research on this problem for speech teachers to examine.

The author is Associate Professor of Speech and director of the beginning speech course at Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Illinois. After taking his A.B. at Parsons College (1927) and his M.A. at Northwestern (1941), he completed his dissertation on the problem discussed in this article and received the Ph.D. degree at Ohio State University in 1953.

sible objectives, a 103 item inventory was set up and given a trial run. The inventory was then revised and rewritten to include 99 items. Five more items to test discrimination were added. This inventory was mailed to 900 college and university speech teachers in the four major geographic regions of the United States, and representing the six common divisions of the field: public address, theatre, speech and hearing, radio and television, interpretation, speech education. Distribution as to speech area and geographic region roughly followed the proportion of college speech teaching personnel in each area and region. Each recipient of the inventory was asked to check the importance to his area of each of the 104 items on a five point scale of value: (1) doubtful value, (2) slight value, (3) moderate value, (4) considerable value, (5) great value.

Five hundred inventories (55 per cent) were returned. Data received were coded and transferred to IBM cards, which were then sorted and counted by machine.

Each of the five items, which were placed in the inventory only for the purpose of testing discrimination, tended to be rated high by the area for which each was intended and low by other areas. In general, the response to the five items indicated discriminating reaction to the items in the inventory and the values in the scale.

Before the data were compiled, a number of questions arose relative to

the possible influence of certain variables on the rating of items. To test these variables and the original purpose of the study the following hypotheses were set up:

1. There is no difference in the value ratings of any item of the inventory of objectives among different groups of college speech teachers representing various speech areas.
2. There is a sufficient number of objectives rated high by college speech teachers and common to all areas from which a general basic course could be built.
3. There is no difference in total scores for individuals arising from the variable "university from which last degree was received."
4. There is no difference in total scores of individuals arising from the variable "type of school in which one is now teaching."
5. There is no difference in total scores of individuals arising from the variable "geographic region in which one is now teaching."
6. There is no difference in the total scores of individuals arising from the variable "doctorate degree."
7. There is no relation between scores of individuals and the number of years since graduation from under-graduate college.
8. There is no difference in the total scores of individuals arising from the variable "department chairman."
9. There is no difference in the total scores of individuals arising from the variable "sex."

Space does not permit listing the 104 items of the survey or the statistics used. Suffice to say that three statisticians, including at least one widely recognized authority in the field, advised as to the statistics to be used. The writer will gladly furnish the list of items and the statistical methods used to anyone sufficiently interested.

#### ITEMS RANKED RELATIVELY HIGH

Judging by the relative ranking of items according to scores, respondents would have the student:

- have a genuine desire to communicate.
- speak earnestly.
- be sensitive to the reactions of others and adapt to them.

- speak with confidence and poise.
- know what response he seeks.
- create and hold interest and attention.
- use variety in speech content and delivery.
- relate message to listener's needs and desires.
- keep within a reasonable time limit.
- know how and when to conclude.
- learn to be a good listener.

They consider these *attitudes* important:

- observe ethical and moral standards in communication.
- have a message which is worth while.
- recognize the necessity for freedom of speech in a democracy.
- be objective about criticism he receives.
- understand that people use our speech as a cue to judge us as persons.

With regard to *delivery* they believe the student should learn to:

- have an adequate voice, speak distinctly, and know how to avoid straining the voice organs.
- speak in a conversational manner.
- have eye directness.
- group words into meaningful phrases.
- sound as if extemporizing.
- have control of body actions.
- speak at appropriate rate and pitch.
- avoid voice, mannerism, dress, or language that distracts attention from the idea.

Under the heading of *speech preparation*, these speech people would have the student learn:

- how to find ideas.
- unity and emphasis.
- to use clear, simple, concise, concrete language.
- to make transitions from idea to idea.
- classification and organization of ideas.
- to select speech content best suited to achieve speech purposes.
- how to support a main idea in communication.

Whether these objectives are taught as applying strictly to the public speaking area or to all areas depends almost exclusively on the instructor. Almost any of the objectives can be taught so as to apply to all or most of the areas. For example, it is important in all areas that the person have a message that is



worth while when he communicates. Even the playwright is interested in that. All areas are interested in avoiding mannerisms, dress, language, or voice that distracts attention from the idea to be communicated. Speech therapists try to correct voice mannerisms and habits which attract attention to themselves and away from the ideas to be communicated. Theatre directors are very careful in costuming their actors so that they look the parts they are to play.

The objective of "learning to work together with others in cooperative solution of a problem" furnishes further proof that areas other than public address use many of these principles in their area courses. For instance, in speech education the instructor and his class, or a committee of the class, work together in developing a speech course plan. In theatre, the director and his cast work together to develop a finished performance. No actor must try to "steal" the attention of the audience when it is supposed to be directed elsewhere. All must be present and on time for rehearsal and performance, and must enter on cue, etc. In television, likewise, teamwork is necessary. Actors, director, camera crew, writers, must cooperate in order to give television viewers the kind of production they expect. Other objectives may be taught in similar manner to apply to all or several areas. This requires that the instructor not be a specialist in one area alone, but that he have a broad point of view and acquire a general speech education including some work in all areas.

#### CONCLUSIONS

1. The conclusion appears justified that there is a sufficient number of objectives common to all or most of the areas and rated high by all or most of the areas from which to build a general basic course.
2. The instructor of such a course should aim to teach for these objectives in such a way that students see their application to all or most of the areas.
3. Persons receiving their graduate degrees from the ten different schools tested are not apt to differ in their general interest in speech as revealed by total scores on this inventory.
4. Individuals now teaching in the three types of schools: universities, teachers colleges, and liberal arts colleges, are not apt to differ significantly in their general interest in the areas of speech.
5. Speech personnel now teaching in the four geographic regions: mid-west, south, east, west, are not apt to differ significantly in their general interest in the areas of speech.
6. Whether or not an individual has a doctorate degree is not apt to significantly affect his general interest in the way he rates speech course content items.
7. There appears to be no relation between the number of years since receipt of the under-graduate degree and the way he rates speech course content items.
8. Whether or not individuals are speech department chairman seems not to affect the way in which they rate speech course content items.
9. Persons of different sex are apt to differ in their total scores. Women appear to rate items of speech course content higher than men.
10. The two area groups that appear to differ the most in their general interest in the items of speech course content are theatre and speech and hearing.

## SACRED COWS IN THE FIELD OF SPEECH

Milton J. Wiksell

RECENTLY an economics professor declared that there were too many "sacred cows" in the field of business. His reference was to traditional methods which are never questioned or replaced by superior techniques. Supervisors of public education in Maryland were cautioned by Governor Theodore McKeldin last December against regarding ideas infallible simply because of their familiarity. He frowned upon merely keeping up with the Joneses in distant ivory towers and further advised that education be kept under constant survey. "The purpose of education," said McKeldin, "is to supply a basic knowledge that equips the individual more adequately to cope with present and future problems." Moreover, he thought that teachers often fail to test their methods in laboratories and that once put into use they are seldom recalled.

Though research is being done in accordance with changing conditions in the Speech field, we must admit the presence of passive teaching methods. New concepts are difficult and sometimes frightening for the shortsighted; hence change is resisted. Yet when some theories and practices are never evaluated by the teacher, work is mere routine and progress is unlikely. Moreover, if this individual is in an administrative capacity his subordinates likewise confine their

interests. The self-satisfied have no realization that truth is not always eternal and that what is true today may be false tomorrow. As one American humorist said, "The trouble with most people is not that they do not know anything; it is rather that they believe so many ideas that are not any longer so."

This brief survey attempts to explore traditional theories or current practices in Speech whose usage appears doubtful to various observers acquainted with the field, and to record some changes they recommend. Information was received by means of a number of interviews and a variety of responses to a brief questionnaire. The fifty respondents were located in various high schools, colleges, universities and professional and business institutions throughout the country. No attempt was made to suggest what to criticize. Rather these extension and graduate students, various ranking professors, heads of areas or departments and graduate faculty were afforded an opportunity to write or voice their opinions about any practice in Speech they saw fit to challenge or defend. The results revealed interest in appraising (1) teaching methods; (2) classroom work, courses and extra-curricular activities; (3) speech composition and delivery; and (4) departmental problems. These four areas are discussed in order as stated.

### TEACHING METHODS

A number of statements were received relative to teaching methods. Concern was manifested over a belief that *anybody* can teach public speaking, and

The author is Associate Professor of Speech at Michigan State University. Much of his present work has been in the field of business and industrial communication. Some of the background for this article originates in the problems which Mr. Wiksell has faced in his current activities. He received his B.A. degree from Wayne State Teachers College (1935); his M.A. (1938) and Ph.D. (1948) degrees are from Louisiana State University.

evidence is desired to prove the point. One teacher sharply criticized the theory which holds that mere frequency of speaking is the essence of improvement. That speech training guarantees an individual success in professional life was looked upon as cheap publicity. A department head, attacking the notion that speech is easy or is a bag of tricks, contended that if the heritage from Aristotle to Quintilian through Campbell and Winans were known, it would not be easy to follow "quick and easy cults." Another emphatically concurred in this view and recommended a study of historical speech models to dispel any fanciful thinking which regards Speech as a mere "experience process."

Further individual opinions were as follows: Encourage students with "basic abilities" to major in Speech, provide special training in constructive and skillful use of criticism, and require a psychology course for better understanding in human behavior. In one instance it was stated that if the teacher were to do more outside speaking or teach extension classes, he probably would have a broader comprehension of public speaking. Developing and publicizing a modern philosophy of speech education for educational and laymen's magazines were thought to be essential in improving public relations.

#### CLASSROOM WORK, COURSES, ACTIVITIES

##### 1. *Class Size and Load*

Several individuals commented upon problems relating to classroom work, courses and extra-curricular activities. Displeasure was expressed by some about heavy teaching loads and lengthy staff meetings. The crux of the matter seemed to be that in many instances the teacher wanted to be relieved of extra responsibilities in order to concentrate more fully on scholastic duties. With the in-

evitable expansion in enrollment, arises the controversy concerning size of sections in the basic course. There were those who maintained that a specific number somewhere in the twenties constitutes the absolute limit. Others held substantial increases were possible if the administration furnishes adequately arranged classrooms, sufficient equipment and a talented staff. Another response indicated the practice of class discussion following each student's speech is "questionable as a defensible use of classroom time." Certain pertinent questions brought up included the following: Why does a practice speech have to be about eight minutes in length when in the opinion of one expert, perhaps as much as fifteen percent of the material is often "dense?" Could we not shorten the speeches to handle the slightly larger classes or provide additional audience experiences in the smaller classes?

##### 2. *Texts*

Class use of poorly written speech books was attacked. In one instance the critic decried the practice of exposing students to what he termed mere "cook-books." Teaching adult education classes without the use of a textbook was another issue in which two department heads had divided opinions. One was quick to point out that since adults in non-credit courses would not read the books, it was useless to require them. In the opinion of the other, textbooks are necessary for the proper insight into both theory and practice as well as for reference work.

##### 3. *Traditional Forms of Speech*

The exclusive use of the traditional forms of speech in public speaking courses was censured in some replies. Since so many professional people hold committee meetings rather than deliver

speeches, it was felt that at least some time be spent in training students to lead, participate in, and plan meetings correctly. The interview, the panel, discussion 66, role playing, the case study, circle-in-the-round, and other forms of group activity are too often overlooked as bases for creative exercises, insisted one professor. It was suggested by another that some of these projects could be used advantageously as "ice breakers" rather than the usual self-introductions. However, some believed that if these "group procedures" are taught, parliamentary law must be included. In this regard, one professor explained that all his speech assignments were molded into parliamentary meetings. Some are determined, however, that solo performances shall constitute the only speech exercises in the basic course. In surveying these forms of speech it was suggested that entirely too much emphasis is placed upon the persuasive types of speech and that Speech should not be labelled as salesmanship. It was indicated that when persuasion is employed, emotional restraint should be required of the student. This view holds that calmly stating the facts is a modern approach and should supplant the emotional style. One professor strongly advised that attention be diverted more toward objective speaking exercises and thought it would help the student if we would specifically identify situations when persuasive speaking is out of order or inappropriate.

#### 4. *Business Speech*

Business speech, according to one administrator, is not sufficiently stressed in some departments. It seems that the current kind of teaching in some institutions does not entirely coincide with the speech skills needed in business. A former student, now an executive in an oil company, pointed out that business

men use impromptu speaking more than the prepared types of speeches. This executive called for practice of this nature which is not only overlooked, but not even recognized by some teachers. Another thought advanced was that more of these former speech students, now in professional work, be polled to ascertain the kind of speech exercises which had proved most valuable to them. One teacher suggested that a professional organization of educators and business men be formed to study the kind of communications skills needed in business and professional work. The importance of proper equipment was reflected in such questions as: Why can't we increase the use of flip charts, flannel boards, strip boards, films, slides and other graphic materials? Why are tape recorders used so sparingly when student groups sometimes place this device as number one in many of their evaluations?

Inasmuch as men and women sometimes face microphones at meetings and appear in radio and television programs, why isn't more experience offered to each student before such instruments in simulated after-dinner speaking circumstances, convention situations in an auditorium and perhaps camera projects? The incorporation of some of these functional projects is inevitable, predicted one professor.

#### 5. *Fundamentals vs. Communication Skills*

A few responses pertained to fundamentals of speech as compared with communication skills. In the latter area one instructor declared that the "integrity of speech" was not sacrificed in his classes and another admitted that this course did not pretend to substitute for fundamentals work. Another viewpoint asserted that Speech "at great cost separated itself once from English"



and must not do so again! A director of speech pathology believed that no speeches should be expected in fundamentals courses. Another objected to Speech courses as fulfilling the "all-college requirement" in certain institutions. Still another writer stated that as yet "too little attention has been paid to listening as an integral part of the speech process and too much attention has been given the speaker, as if the entire responsibility were his."

#### 6. *Articulation and Pronunciation*

One critic sharply assailed articulation exercises which he labeled a "hangover" from elocution and which need to be brought up to date. Instead of these exercises he advised more time be spent on the communication of ideas. A decided difference of opinion was held by another scholar who deplored the weakened emphasis on articulation. Another opinion was that too many students who take such course work really do not need it. Disagreement also prevailed regarding the necessity of pronunciation exercises. One student blamed television for the large number of children's programs featuring poor pronunciation and grammar. The doctrine that a "big vocabulary" is necessary for "good oral communications" was questioned. More research was desired on the "ear vs. eye words and the effects of inflection on meaning." The assumption that "voice improvement" is essential to effective communication was also open to doubt. Although one high school teacher insisted that deep breathing is the first concern in her speech classes, several flatly disapproved of this theory. They argued that it is an outmoded theory and demanded specific evidence to show that this practice is important.

#### 7. *Contests.*

Strong feeling was apparent for and against various types of speech contests.

Some teachers disliked overpracticing, memorization, ghost writing, poor judging and other devices associated with contests. Several looked upon extemporaneous speaking and oral reading as particularly functional and rewarding experiences. If for reasons of departmental publicity and student participation, contests could not be avoided, one instructor insisted upon an audience even though it necessitated a captive one. A few questions which brought disagreement were: Should students debate both sides of a question? Should only those with considerable knowledge and experience in debating be allowed to participate in intercollegiate debate?

#### SPEECH COMPOSITION AND DELIVERY

Worthy of attention is a variety of viewpoints concerning speech composition. One instructor declared that in general, speech as a thinking process is given an insufficient amount of attention; likewise the content of the speeches is neglected. This does not mean, stated another, that if something worthwhile is to be said, it will automatically be well delivered. In other words, concentrating on content does not necessitate discounting the importance of effective presentation. An experienced professor, who specialized in teaching advanced students and adult education courses, recommended that more work be done on the individual and his particular problem. Another faculty member cautioned that too much stress upon audience adaptation can lead to superficiality and pretentiousness on the part of the speaker.

According to the survey, there appears to be a trend towards omitting the introduction in certain types of speeches. Heretofore, instructors have required comments in most speeches to win favor with the audience. It is contended,



however, that in many speech situations such as meetings currently held, professional people often omit this portion in order to allow for more time elsewhere.

The argument that a stereotyped pattern of speech would produce the best results met with doubt. One critic insisted that we are adhering too rigidly to the conventional system of an introduction, body and conclusion for most speeches if, for not all of them. He asked why a rhetorical principle should be continued on the basis that it has withstood the test of time. There was an objection to the concept that every speech can be buckled, bent or deformed into a motivated sequence. If we confine ourselves to such patterns, one respondent observed, more explanations must be made as to why these plans are required. The crux of the matter seems to be that if we are to keep in tune with the changing times, flexibility, modification and painstaking adaptation of speech materials to the group or situation concerned are necessary.

There was an inclination to believe that the speaker should be natural in his delivery, but not "at the expense of correctness." It was charged that too much attention paid to gestures, well-timed pauses and other vocal and physical attributes is likely to make the speech a showpiece. We must be made to realize, said one, that certain passages and specific occasions do not lend themselves to gestures. Inquiries received concerning delivery were: Is it

not likely that we are attempting to develop a standard product rather than the best style for the individual student?

#### DEPARTMENTAL PROBLEMS

Differing points of view were expressed over the "fragmentation of departments." Those favoring the plan offered increased specialization as their objective. Relative to this, one teacher related that a manager of a radio station had declared that specialization is precisely what he did not want. Therefore, this teacher called for a broad liberal arts program aimed at "basic values" in modern living and recommended that Speech majors include courses in all the areas of Speech. Granting the master's degree without a thesis and using students as guinea pigs for audience reaction in research were practices which also were criticized.

Thus, the probing revealed that while some persons could think of no theory which needed examination, there were many who not only doubted some concepts, but offered suggestions for their improvement. Differences of opinions, doubts, and questions revealed that some of our thinking is not as yet based upon facts. It is wholesome to entertain these views offered by various individuals interested in improving our profession. We have much in the traditional which is valuable. Many sacred cows are worth preserving. However, they should not stand in the way of our effective utilization of new ideas in the field of Speech.

## MINIMUM SCENERY FOR HIGH SCHOOL PRODUCTIONS

J. Alan Hammack

SOME years ago the late Ernest Bavely wrote for the National Thespian Society what he considered "Standards for the Selection of Plays at the High School Level."<sup>1</sup> The fourth standard was worded like this: the high school play "should challenge the highest creative and artistic abilities of all who are associated with its production, thereby affording rich opportunities for study, analysis and experimentation."<sup>2</sup> As a former director of high school drama and one presently an interested viewer of secondary school productions, I believe that creativity and experimentation with scenery for high school productions has been held in check, or in many instances, completely throttled, because practically all of the present-day theatrical practitioners have been schooled in the age of realism with regard to stage productions.

The age of realism is now seventy years old. It began March 30, 1887 when Andre Antoine presented the playlet *Jacques Damour* at his Theatre-Libre in Paris.<sup>3</sup> At this time naturalism, or extreme realism, became dominant. To be sure, other aspects of realism were seen in the theatre in the early nine-

teenth century (the box set was used first sometime in the third decade of the nineteenth century), "but not until the time of Antoine did illusion become the dominant, systematized technique which exists for example, on Broadway and in Hollywood today."<sup>4</sup>

Eventually naturalism came to America where David Belasco became its foremost advocate. His work in naturalism can probably be dated from his *The Girl I Left Behind Me* in 1893. This and other Belasco theatrical productions made a strong impression on the motion picture industry beginning in America in the early twentieth century. Also, the American theatre was affected but not to the same degree. However, as we have grown up, most of us have been indoctrinated in the tradition of realism or actualism. As a result, little departure from realistic productions has been made by teachers and students (especially in high school productions), and often change has been completely discouraged. Our schooling has made us expect, accept, and use the form of scenery known as the box set. Fundamentally this expectation, acceptance and use of the box set has made for a very narrow theatrical experience both on the part of the production members and spectators.<sup>5</sup> With such an outlook the great plays predating modern

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He received his B. S. degree from Kent State (1948), his M.A. from Northwestern (1950), and completed the Ph.D. at Iowa (1954).

<sup>1</sup> Ernest Bavely, "Standards for the Selection of Plays at the High School Level," *Dramatic Director's Handbook*, publication of the National Thespian Society.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>3</sup> Mordecai Gorelik, *New Theatres for Old* (New York, 1949), 125-128.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 68.

<sup>5</sup> In a random selection of five recent issues of the *Dramatics* magazine, I noted sixty-seven pictures of sets. Fifty-one of the pictures were of realistic sets, and sixteen were of non-realistic sets. Of the fifty-one pictures of realistic sets, forty were of box sets and the remaining eleven were of exterior sets.

scenery and Ibsen have either not been produced, or not completely enjoyed by audiences (because of the realistic bias of the audiences) if they have been produced. One need only note what the college theatres, Broadway theatres, and summer theatre circuits present to see the emphasis on modern realistic plays.<sup>6</sup> I am not attempting to deprecate the use of the box set as a form of scenery; rather I am in favor of a broader outlook concerning scenery.

The predicament of thinking in terms of one main form of scenery is not one that can be brushed off lightly, because along with the tradition of realism in the legitimate theatre, the motion pictures and television have helped instill realistic staging more than ever into everyone's consciousness. However, if the director is aware of the predicament, he may be able to reorient himself and change his outlook (or at least broaden it in scope) so there will be some place for his creative and artistic thoughts to thrive after they once sprout.

I realize that there are certain items to be considered in the high school production. Some of these, as related to the subject of this article, are: stage facilities, lighting facilities, sufficient funds, problems of scene shifts, and the ability and experience of the director. For what I am going to present, stage facilities do not need to be those for a stage with a forty-foot proscenium opening and a stage depth of thirty feet; lighting facilities do not need to be elaborate; not as much money will be required as for the box setting; and scene

shifts may be more easily handled. Finally, it is my opinion that the average dramatics director can be creative if he is an intelligent person, and if he is aware of the possibilities other than the box set in staging plays.

Basically scenic art is an illusion not reality. One thing must be remembered—the audience understands that the environment it sees is a copy. For it knows that illusion has been a part of the theatre from the earliest times. Now, a too blatant display of realism can destroy a play's effectiveness because the setting is made too closely to life. The setting instead of the play then gets the audience's attention. The environment or background for a play is exactly what the setting should be, and it has been this since the time of the Greek Theatre. Since this is so, we can supply *some* of the background, and let the imagination of the audience do the rest. However, a note of warning: the less of the background and its accessories—costumes, makeup, properties, lighting—that are shown, the less the audience's experience will be a dramatic one and the more it will be an experience via the avenue of oral interpretation. So it is possible to give too little in the way of environment to an audience as well as to present a too overdone realistic environment.

Since only some of the background need be supplied, various forms of minimum scenery can be used. Minimum scenery may be defined as incomplete scenery in one way or another. This may be a new term to the reader because few scenery books used in college play production courses treat this aspect of scenery.<sup>7</sup> The characteristics

<sup>6</sup> Note these two studies: John E. Dietrich, "Survey of Dramatic Activity in American Colleges: 1946-47," *Quarterly Journal of Speech* XXXIV (1948), 183-190; and Edwin R. Schoell, "College and University Productions, a Five-Year Study," *Educational Theatre Journal* VIII (1956), 115-119; or peruse a year's issue of *Theatre Arts*, noting the plays offered.

<sup>7</sup> Four books on scenery present material on minimum scenery. They are, ranking them in the order of much material or less: Herbert Philippi, *Stagecraft and Scene Design* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1953); Samuel Selden and Hunton D. Sellman, *Stage Scenery and*

of minimum or incomplete scenery are these: the flat frames may be shorter than normal scenery (from three to seven feet in height); the scenery may be merely selected pieces of plywood, or flat frames, and/or furniture; or the flat frames may be left uncovered by muslin or canvas.

Of the six forms of minimum scenery, four seem to be the most usable in high school theatrical productions. They are *cutdown setting*, *selective* (or *suggestive*) *setting*, *fragmentary setting*, and *profile setting*. Cut-down setting is a form of minimum scenery which consists of a number of flats not normal in height. Usually the height of a flat unit such as a door flat would be no higher than the door itself. The same thing is true for a window flat, and a plain flat might be no taller than three feet. In a cut-down setting there is a sufficient number of flats to make the setting from one side of the proscenium arch, or tormentor, to the other side. Basically this form of scenery is a box set with the flats cut down in height, and usually the flats are of the wood-muslin type. However, it would be possible to use plywood for the flats. These flats may have designs painted on them, or three dimensional building (e.g. a real lumber mopboard) may be done. A drapery backing is a necessity and it should be neutral in color with not too much light directed at it. Usually a black drapery is too dark. Quite serviceable is a dark blue drapery made from duvetyne fabric, which is not as expensive or as heavy as cotton velour, one of the fabrics often used by profes-

sionals. This form of minimum scenery is very useful when more than one set is required, as for example in *The Importance of Being Earnest* by Oscar Wilde, which has one exterior and two interior sets. The State University of Iowa theatre used cut-down settings for a recent production of this play, and several pictures of this production are in Friederich and Fraser's book.<sup>8</sup>

Selective setting implies that the director imagines what a whole room might look like, and then he selects one wall or section which is thought to be the most interesting and suggestive of the locale desired. The flats used are normal in height and the wall or section is complete architecturally. When the room was imagined, the furniture should have been imagined also. Now, from the roomful of furniture the director removes the least important, leaving the usable necessary pieces. The same points concerning paint, three dimensional building, and drapery that applied to the cut-down setting mentioned above, apply to the selective setting. Jo Mielziner's settings for the 1931 Broadway production of *Anatol* were selective settings. Two pictures of this production are in Heffner, Selden and Sellman's book.<sup>9</sup> The selective setting is very effective for realistic plays, and the wall or section of a room for each set makes it unnecessary to construct several box sets each using fourteen or fifteen flats. This form of minimum scenery is now widely used for sets for television productions.

The fragmentary setting, as its name indicates, is a fragment of a room, usually a small, irregularly shaped section of a room with jagged edges or a break-off suggested indefinitely. The audience gets the impression that the room sec-

*Lighting*, rev. ed. (New York: F. S. Crofts & Company, 1945); Willard J. Friederich and John H. Fraser, *Scenery Design for the Amateur Stage* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950); and Hubert Heffner, Samuel Selden and Hunton D. Sellman, *Modern Theatre Practices*, 2nd ed. (New York: F. S. Crofts & Company, 1939).

<sup>8</sup> See footnote 7 for the title of the book.

<sup>9</sup> See footnote 7 for the title of the book.

tion extends indefinitely. Usually the height of a fragment is not normal and each fragment is painted rather than built. Sometimes the fragments of a room are outlined by using a framework of metal, as in the 1948 Broadway production of Tennessee Williams', *Summer and Smoke*. A picture of this set appears in *Theatres and Auditoriums* by Harold Burris-Meyer and Edward C. Cole. Other times the fragments are outlined using wood as in the 1954 motion picture, *Red Garters*, in which parts of buildings, and doorways were merely outlined. However, irregularly shaped wood and canvas flats were used in the 1945 Broadway production of *Dark of the Moon* by Howard Richardson and William Berner. None of these productions attempted to be completely realistic. If the producers had been aiming at complete realism, fragmentary settings would not have been used. For complete realism is difficult to achieve or suggest using fragmentary settings. This form of minimum scenery is one which can be used with background draperies of various colors; the color used depends on the kind of play and the director's choice.

Profile setting is named after the common name for three-ply plywood, profile board. When this form of minimum scenery is used a designer attempts to represent a scene by using one or two objects, the shape of which acts as a backing or suggests a locale or some particular place. For example, a street lamp sawed out of a piece of profile board to represent a street at night; or several trees sawed out of profile board to represent an exterior. The object may be a gate, a doorway and door, a park bench with or without a tree, or a fence. Furthermore, the object or objects do not need to be used in isola-

tion; other properties or items of furniture which might normally be considered a part of a grouping could be used. For example, a door frame and a practical front door both constructed from profile board could very well have a halltree, or whatnot, and an umbrella stand to complete the grouping to indicate that this group represented a front entrance to a home. This form of minimum scenery is effective against either drapery (dark blue or black) or a velour act curtain, and also it is usually painted. At present this form is frequently seen on television. Also, musical comedies often are presented using this form.

Although these various forms of minimum scenery might now look like worthy methods by which a play can be staged, let me caution with this: existing box set flats should be cut up! If the director has box set flats, he should keep them and rotate them with minimum scenery settings. It is far better to start from the beginning in constructing minimum scenery. Some of the advantages which will be encountered if construction of minimum scenery is planned are these: first, plays which have many sets can be staged. Before, it was undoubtedly impossible to construct three or four complete box sets. Second, the nature of minimum scenery is such that not too much time will be needed for construction. Third, due to fewer building supplies required (compared to the box set), construction expenses will not be so high. Fourth, minimum scenery is adaptable to either a realistic or a fantastic type play, whether it be a comedy or a drama. And fifth, minimum scenery can be used for exterior sets as well as for interior sets.

While the above advantages are intriguing, before a director begins to con-



struct and use some of the forms of minimum scenery there are some items that are needed. Some ability in construction and painting is required by the director. If this is not possessed to the required degree, help from the art and industrial arts teachers should be obtained. A neutral drapery (possibly the dark blue) or painted backdrops are also needed. However, if the stage drapery is too light or is a black drapery, the drapery is still usable with proper lighting. If the drapery is too light in color, an attempt should be made to keep the white and pastel colored light from being directed on it; dark colored gelatins should be used with some light sources to suffuse the drapery with this dark colored light. A different solution has to be made for a black drapery; more color and brighter colors should be used in the settings, and possibly a variety of decorative shapes. Since minimum scenery implies that a particular spot on the stage is a certain locale, that spot must be illuminated by light and the rest of the stage be left either in darkness or semi-darkness. Conse-

quently, some means of obtaining specific illumination should be employed; the general illumination of the border-lights alone is not enough. The parabolic reflector, 75-150 watt lamps, and the other inexpensive lighting equipment that are available from many lighting companies offer means whereby specific illumination can be obtained by high school dramatic groups. Finally, the director needs a fertile imagination. The director should look at pictures of theatrical sets<sup>10</sup>, think about settings and plays, experiment with ideas, and also make experimental sketches (however crude they might be), using combinations of the forms of minimum scenery presented above. All these various avenues of thinking will help the director channel his thoughts toward the staging of one play, and he will find that he has been creative.

<sup>10</sup> Theatre Arts, Inc., has several series of prints of stage settings. One of the most recent and provocative picture books of stage settings is the one edited by Rene Hainaux and Yves-Bonnat entitled *Stage Design Throughout the World*, and published by Theatre Arts, Inc., in 1956.

## GROUP HANDLING OF RHYTHM AND ARTICULATION PROBLEMS

Morton J. Gordon

**F**REQUENT articulation problems, stemming from bilingualism, have resulted in a comprehensive speech improvement program at the University of Hawaii. The program is unique because of the large number of remedial speech courses offered to students representing so many different linguistic backgrounds. The author believes the mechanics of this particular system can assist other teachers who have pupils with bilingual problems, as well as instructors of foreign student classes, of adult education groups, and of dialect improvement courses in voice and diction.

The purpose of this article is to indicate some of the difficulties presented in teaching speech improvement to a class of University students from bilingual families, to discuss the general plan of retraining, and to show some useful techniques for efficient relearning.

### THE PROBLEM

The linguistic influence in Hawaii of Japanese, Chinese, Korean, Hawaiian, and several Filipino dialects, notably Ilocano, has led to the development of substandard or pidgin English. Pidgin

The author has been very much interested and most active in dealing with certain speech problems of the student body at the University of Hawaii. The many language backgrounds and dialects offer a real challenge to the speech therapist, as well as to the general speech teacher. Morton J. Gordon, who discusses some of these problems, took his Master of Arts degree at the State University of Iowa (1955), and is Instructor in Speech at the University of Hawaii. The techniques described in dealing with rhythm and articulation difficulties may prove useful to other speech teachers.

English, in addition to the other linguistic influences, has resulted in a regional dialect with certain phonetic and rhythmic inadequacies. This regional dialect includes the articulation and rhythm errors found in the speech of many students at the University. Table I shows some of the commoner phonetic substitutions.

The students also have rhythm deficiencies. They glottalize stressed vowels, employ awkward blending and use poor stress patterns. These distinguishing features give the speech a characteristically rapid, staccato quality.

The Department of Speech has organized a series of remedial courses to help those who need speech improvement. After completing the introductory course required of all freshmen, students are screened for dialectal speech by three members of the department. Pupils whose speech is considered below standard are enrolled in a beginning course of speech improvement. When the course terminates they are screened again; if their speech is still defective they take a second course. Those who fail to acquire speech reasonably free from sound and rhythm errors must repeat the class.

During the 1955-1956 academic year (including summer session) a total of 2468 students was screened for dialectal speech. During the same year 548 pupils, comprising 41 sections, enrolled in various speech improvement courses.

### DIFFICULTY OF THE PROBLEM

The complexity of the situation at the University of Hawaii is clearly demonstrated by the following facts. The average undergraduate in a remedial class has been using substandard speech during most of his 17 years. He has several articulation errors and faulty rhythm. Many times his mode of communication with his parents has been through pidgin English, or the parents' speech has reflected the same defective elements found in the offspring's language. The student is also exposed to other members of the community who use either pidgin or dialectal speech.

The severity of the speech difficulties and the type of remedial plan available makes it mandatory to limit the course goals. The pupil must readily discriminate the elements constituting the regional dialect and is expected to demonstrate adequate language during various brief speaking situations. Prior to completing the course, he must perform satisfactorily before a screening committee.

### PROCEDURES

Three exercises are used in diagnosis: (1) a prepared prose reading containing all of the sounds in their most frequent positions, (2) a short prepared introductory talk, (3) questions pertaining to another person's introductory comments. The question and answer device demonstrates the speaker's ability in an informal situation and starts developing a relaxed atmosphere.

The next step is to determine whether to commence with rhythm patterns or sound substitutions. The author prefers starting with rhythm. Clinical observations of remedial instructors at the University of Hawaii indicate that rhythm appears more resistant to change, because students have more difficulty understanding and correcting

it. An early start, with continued emphasis, leads to more rapid improvement.

Local rhythm problems include the following factors: (1) articulation of vowels with an abrupt, glottalized attack that results in rapid, staccato speech, (2) use of poor word blending, particularly in blends combining vowels and (or) diphthongs, blends joining two plosives, or blends involving plosives and vowels or diphthongs; these qualities further emphasize the staccato quality, (3) slurring, which is augmented by a tense lower jaw.

Remedial procedures begin by teaching students to lengthen stressed vowels, stressed diphthongs, and continuing consonants like [m], [n], [ŋ], and [l]. Complex polysyllabic words are used to illustrate the contrast between lengthening accented syllables and shortening unaccented syllables. Word lists with similar stress patterns are practiced.

Califórnia	immédiat
nationality	communicación
ceremónial	Louisiana
mechanical	deliberación
aluminum	

The ability to compare stressed and unstressed syllables in words is carried to sentences, and the same techniques are applied to contrasting accented and unaccented words.

Califórnia—I saw Jóhn over there.

mechanical—I knów it's not.

communicación—He has the gréen one.

The pupil learns the more common monosyllabic words and the role of the unstressed vowel in rhythm. Close attention is focused on [ə], [ɐ], and [ɪ].

Blending is discussed simultaneously with stress, and speakers study the close correlation between syllable and word blending. Most pupils produce smoothly linked syllables in polysyllabic words;

their difficulty is blending word groups. The same exercises used to practice stress are employed for blending.

Special blending problems are also discussed and practiced (see p. 247). Particular emphasis is placed on using the linking glides [r], [j], and [w] in word blends involving vowels and (or) diphthongs, and joining final plosives with initial vowels or diphthongs. Sentences illustrating these blends are prepared for practice.

- [r] Father is here.  
fəðərɪz hɪr
- [j] Why is it gone?  
waɪjɪz ɪt gən
- [w] Show it later.  
ʃəʊɪt leɪtər
- [k] Take it off.  
teɪkɪt ɒf
- [t] Let us in.  
letəs ɪn
- [p] He has a ripe orange.  
hɪ hæz ə raɪp ʌrɪndʒ

Longer preparations start with prose selections and either conversational dialogues or play-reading. The latter, conversation-type drills, prepare the student for impromptu speeches and spontaneous conversation. Careful selection of dialogue materials is imperative; stilted, non-colloquial dialogue should be avoided. Plays like the Moss Hart, George S. Kaufman comedy, *You Can't Take It With You*, contain examples of dramatic dialogue closely approaching genuine conversation and are adapted easily to speech improvement. Many teachers prefer to prepare their own dialogues.

The successful speaker in a remedial course is one who monitors his speech. The pupil who fails to recognize his errors cannot control the dialectical elements and the author takes every opportunity to encourage recognition and correction of mistakes. Suggestions for

speech monitoring include the following:

1. Select a different error to listen for daily. Record in a notebook the number of times the error is heard and corrected.
2. Set aside specific times of the day, such as mealtime, and make a particular effort to use good speech. Correct all errors.
3. Correct immediately any errors that are heard during practice sessions.

The Speech Department recently opened its listening laboratory with facilities for 15 people to listen and repeat recorded materials. Two channels are available, and each person listens to the desired exercises through headphones. Current rhythm materials include conversational dialogues, prose passages and rhythm drills. All selections have been mimeographed so the student can follow the speaker easily. The main flaw in the present system is the lack of individual playback facilities through which the listener can compare his speech to the master tape. Nevertheless the laboratory has provided additional opportunities for guided improvement.

#### SOUNDS

Students study the phonetic alphabet, giving special attention to the regional dialect. The author employs phonetic symbols for corrections and illustrations, but transcription is not considered a course goal.

Articulation problems usually follow a well defined set of substitutions or distortions (Table I). Most mistakes involve confusion between pairs of vowels and consonants which have nearly identical placement. The degree of complexity encompasses a wide range. Some speakers misarticulate sounds in isolation while others demonstrate only occasional errors in conversation.

The error pairs are taught simultaneously, and corrective procedures commence with listening drills using word

TABLE I

Common Substitutions	Sample Word	Island Pronunciation	General American Pronunciation
i   ɪ	window	windo	windo
ɪ   i	sweet	swit	swit
ɛ   æ	send	send	sænd
æ   ɛ	tent	tænt	tent
ɛ   e	say	sɛ	se
ɑ   ʌ	mother	mɑðə	mʌðə
u   ʊ	book	buk	buk
ʊ   u	food	fud	fud
d   ð	father	fɑðə	fɑðə
t   θ	think	tɪŋk	θɪŋk
n   ŋ	swimming	swimin	swimɪŋ
s   z	reads	rids	ridz
ʃtr   str	street	ʃtrit	strit
ənt   nt	didn't	dɪdənt	dɪdnt
təl   tɪ	bottle	bətəl	bətɪ

groups, "sit-seat, pit-peat," and sentences, "I see the ship, I see the sheep." Production exercises are preceded by pertinent information regarding the characteristics of each sound, and reference is made to kinesthetic aids, imitation and placement techniques.

The speaker concentrates his efforts on sentences loaded with specific sounds. His attention is focused on potential errors, and he is encouraged to recognize substitutions or distortions. Continued stress is placed on developing good rhythm throughout this phase of re-training.

When the articulation problems have been covered, the emphasis turns to longer, more difficult speech situations. Possible materials include: prepared or impromptu speeches and conversational preparations such as panel discussions or question and answer periods. The critiques of the final performances include the following items:

#### *Rhythm:*

1. Ability to blend words; 2. ability to lengthen stressed vowels and important continuing consonants; 3. ability to effectively contrast stressed and unstressed syllables.

#### *Sounds:*

1. Ability to articulate well; 2. ability to monitor speech.

#### *General:*

1. Ability to project and employ vocal variety.

### OUTSIDE AID

Extra help is provided in three ways: through conferences, speech partners and the listening laboratory. The listening laboratory has been mentioned, and additional materials are provided on the various sounds.

The first conferences should start by the second week of school. Their purpose is analyzing the difficulties revealed through the diagnosis and making certain the speaker completely understands his problems. The best corrective methods are introduced, and



ample opportunity is afforded for guided practice. A follow-up meeting is held towards mid-semester. The student brings a phonograph recording of his speech which he has previously analyzed. The instructor evaluates the analysis and contributes his own comments. He discusses the speaker's progress, reviews the more difficult areas and provides an opportunity for practice. Additional meetings are held for those with the severest difficulties.

The conferences serve other less direct, but equally useful functions. Many persons underestimate the formidable task of changing firmly established speech habits. They become discouraged because progress remains slow despite intensive efforts. Good speech will not be achieved by some of these pupils in one semester, and they should be aware of the need for continued assistance. These students must realize that sometimes hard work alone is insufficient to overcome deeply rooted speech patterns. The importance of time must be understood, otherwise they may lose their initiative. Some speakers fail to recognize the amount of work needed and attempt to pass with a minimum of effort, while others resent the course because they believe their speech is adequate. The consultations help the instructor to discuss these various problems confidentially and give the pupil further insight regarding his deficiency.

Further assistance is gained from the speech partner program. As early as

possible, partners are selected who will meet regularly for several periods a week. Whenever feasible they are matched according to type and severity of involvement. Every week each person turns in a written evaluation of his partner's progress, detailed in the following manner:

*Procedure:* Outline everything practiced during the lesson; *Evaluation:* Indicate the degree of success and state whether further work is needed in the same area; *Assignment:* Explain the practice plan for the next meeting.

#### SUMMARY

It is apparent that group speech improvement at the University of Hawaii is a difficult undertaking, whose progress must be measured by limited amounts of speech heard in artificial classroom situations. One must assume the pupil will continue to effect further changes in his manner of speaking, until his rhythm and articulation defects have completely disappeared from his conversation. Whether or not additional progress will materialize depends upon the instructor's adroitness in motivating the speaker. The student must be convinced that acceptable conversation is a valuable asset which is worth achieving through persistent efforts. The teacher who fails to convince his student of this fact has not completely fulfilled his task, because the ultimate result of speech improvement can only be measured by the degree of conversational proficiency.

## PRONUNCIATION OF AMERICAN ENGLISH FOR HUNGARIAN STUDENTS

Virginia R. Miller and Doris I. Payne

TEN Hungarian women students arrived at Wellesley College in February, 1957. Our contribution was to teach them the pronunciation of the sounds of American English in once-a-week meetings. The program established for them, excluding our own, was a five-period-a-week course in English Language Structure which included reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Two additional hour sessions were held in conversation and oral pattern practice. Practice sessions with American students and bi-weekly recordings with an experienced instructor completed the program. Each Hungarian student had an hour of oral practice per week with five different American student tutors. The practice was related to the teaching program and to the recording program. Each Hungarian student studied independently as well.

By our first meeting, the students had met for one week in English Language Structure and had acquired a small vocabulary. Using all the visual means at our command (pictures, pantomime, acting, sketches on the blackboard), sounds and words were presented. Var-

iants such as [a], [ɒ], and the use of [r] after vowels were purposely omitted but were included later. In the second lesson, sounds that were found to be difficult for the Hungarians were reviewed: [ɪ] in *sit*, [æ] in *hat*, [ɔ] in *saw*, [i] in *see*, [e] in *table*, [ou] in *coat*, [θ] in *thin*, [ð] in *this*, [ŋ] in *sing*, [ŋg] in *finger*, [r] in *run*, and final [t, d, k, g, l, n]. Their pronunciation of [i], [e], [ou] needed to be diphthongized and lengthened. In individual words, [w] and [v] presented no problem, but in connected speech [w], [v], [u], and [ʊ] needed drill. A short review of sounds and words was continued almost every week. Reading and conversation using the vocabulary of everyday living provoked a humorous rapport between students and instructor. In addition, oral reading and tape recording were introduced, using simple but graphic selections of poetry and prose. Robert Browning's *Meeting At Night*, Christina Rossetti's *Lullabye*, Edward Lear's *Owl and the Pussy Cat*, A. E. Houseman's *When I Was One-and Twenty*, *The Skipper's Wives* (Anonymous), J. Edgar Park's *The Last Chapel Talk*, James Reid Parker's *The First Day*, scenes from Thornton Wilder's *Our Town* and Lincoln's *Gettysburg Address* were some of the selections used. Different methods of practice on tape recording were used: 1) for sounds, stress, tempo, and rhythm of longer passages; 2) for comparison with instructor's speech, testing no. (1) above; 3) for repetition of single sen-

With some colleges and universities, the entrance of Hungarian students has placed responsibilities upon speech departments. This article describes a project done with such persons at Wellesley College. Mrs. Virginia Miller, who received her B.A. Degree from Wheaton College (1931) and her A.M. from Cornell University (1941), is Assistant Professor of Speech and Chairman of the Department of Speech; she has been very active as President of the New England Speech Association. Doris Payne, M.F.A., Yale University (1952), is Instructor of Speech at Wellesley.

tences after the instructor for drill. The singing of rounds proved to be most helpful, as well as the oral reading of the student's original short compositions.

As a mid-term examination, a short original speech was required of each student. Only one student used notes. Visitors were present and understood what was said. Directly after spring vacation, a second speech was required, the subject dealing with their vacation activities. It was hoped that students would be able to utilize the auditory and visual stimuli received from their new experiences, including such widely diversified incidents as cooking on a Vermont farm and talking with Harry Truman. The students' improvement justified the assignment. About this time it was noted that abstract ideas could be used in class discussion without recourse to graphic demonstration.

At this point it was deemed feasible to give some orientation to the use of an American dictionary. The class was divided into two groups. The students who were more advanced in abstract oral verbalization comprised one group and received more detailed instruction

than the other group. The advanced group was introduced to dictionary symbols\* gradually since they were not all familiar with the International Phonetic Alphabet. Selected words and sentences were used for drill in learning the symbols. Because of the pressure of time, lists of contrasts of sounds such as "sit-seat," "sought-thought" were practiced with student tutors and other instructors. Attention to sight reading and dictation had to be minimized as well. Simple rules for sounds were discussed briefly as study progressed. A simplified, multigraphed copy of some important Rules for Sounds was distributed to each student for her own use.

The final examination consisted of oral reading of prose and another original speech. Visitors again were present. The students' reaction to visitors showed more confidence in language usage. The progress noted by the students themselves and their instructors in sounds, vocabulary, intonation, stress and timing could not have been achieved without the total program.

\*It would seem mandatory for the American publishers of dictionaries to give consideration to the use of phonetic symbols as well as diacritical marks in their pronunciation lists of words since people all over the world are studying English.

# THE FORUM

## ELECTIONS 1958

The official results of the SAA elections of 1958 as reported by the Executive Secretary, follow. Persons whose names appear below will serve for full terms beginning 1 January 1959.

### SECOND VICE-PRESIDENT

Ralph G. Nichols, University of Minnesota,  
St. Paul

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Robert West, Brooklyn College

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William Buehler, University of Kansas,  
Lawrence  
D. E. Morley, University of Michigan, Ann  
Arbor  
Donald Smith, University of Minnesota,  
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#### Southern Area:

Robert Capel, Stephen F. Austin Teachers  
College, Nacogdoches, Texas  
Clarence Edney, Florida State University,  
Tallahassee  
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Charles McGlon, Southern Baptist Seminary,  
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#### Western Area:

Donald Hargis, University of California at  
Los Angeles  
Gale Richards, University of Washington,  
Seattle  
Rowena Roberts, High School, Colorado Springs,  
Colorado  
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#### Eastern Area:

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### REPRESENTATIVES-AT-LARGE IN THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY

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California, Los Angeles  
Paul Moore, Northwestern University, Evanston,  
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Albuquerque  
Victor Powell, Wabash College, Crawfordsville,  
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Edward A. Rogge, Tulane University, New Orleans, Louisiana

Robert Schacht, University of Wisconsin, Madison

Col. Warren Thompson, United States Air Force Academy, Denver, Colorado

Karl R. Wallace, University of Illinois, Urbana

Claude M. Wise, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge

John Wright, Fresno State College, Fresno, California

Laura Wright, Alabama College, Montevallo

W. Hayes Yeager, The Ohio State University, Columbus

#### ABOUT SYMPOSIA OF ARTICLES

In this issue of *The Speech Teacher* appears the third symposium of articles on selected sub-

jects or problems in the field. In collecting such materials and printing several aspects of a subject in a single issue, there is the distinct advantage of concentrating available information or opinion upon the subject in question. There is always the disadvantage of restricting the number of different kinds of articles and problems which can be included in a single issue of the publication—the base is usually narrowed somewhat by a symposium.

Recognizing the arguments on both sides of this question, the Editor is interested in securing reactions regarding the "experiment." He is also eager for suggestions of contemporary issues and problems which are of urgency or of particular appeal to readers of *The Speech Teacher*. He cordially invites your comments.

K.F.R.



# BOOK REVIEWS

Donald H. Ecroyd, *Editor*

Two books of great interest to all teachers of Speech have come out in recent months which are the result of careful work on the part of several scholars. One of these is the collection of essays on various aspects of audiology, speech pathology and therapy edited by Travis, which Dr. Leutenegger reviews below. The other is *The Rhetorical Idiom*, a collection of essays on rhetoric, oratory, language and drama issued in honor of Herbert A. Wichelns and reviewed below by your editor. All of us in the field of speech can take great pride in such books, for they represent the maturing scholarship of our field in a way that ordinary texts do not and cannot.

THE RHETORICAL IDIOM (presented to Herbert August Wichelns). Edited by Donald C. Bryant. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1958. pp. viii+334. \$6.00.

This is in several ways a noteworthy volume. Not the least of these ways is the inclusion of Dr. Wichelns' famed but generally unavailable essay on "The Literary Criticism of Oratory" which first appeared in 1925. As editor Donald C. Bryant has pointed out, "this essay set the pattern and determined the direction of rhetorical criticism for more than a quarter of a century and has had a greater and more continuous influence upon the development of the scholarship of rhetoric and public address than any other single work published in this century."

The volume is opened with a brief introduction by Everett Lee Hunt on "Herbert A. Wichelns and the Cornell Tradition of Rhetoric as a Humane Study." These remarks are followed by the Wichelns essay and a varied series of 16 other studies arranged in no apparent order. All are expertly done, in some cases urbanely done. The style ranges from the hard, tough, analytical discussion of "Status in Deliberative Analysis," presented by Lee Hultzen, to the thoughtful, intensely readable suggestions of Richard Murphy in his "Preface to an Ethic of Rhetoric." The content ranges from C. K. Thomas' interesting map and explanation concerning "The Linguistic Mason and Dixon Line" to James Hutton's

consideration of "Rhetorical Doctrine and Some Poems of Ronsard."

The Rhetorician will want to read Wayland Maxfield Parrish's comments entitled "Whately on Elocution." Dr. Parrish commences with Winans' observation that the part of Whately's *Elements of Rhetoric* which has been "most significant in the history of rhetoric deals with the topic he knew least about"—elocution. In conclusion is offered the suggestion that Whately's treatment of this vital canon of rhetoric does indeed have serious shortcomings. Primarily, Whately's system is shown to be such that it is of value "only to those whose habitual speech needs no improvement." (p. 51). "His essential error is his failure to realize that language . . . is not natural but has to be learned." (p. 52)

Wilbur Samuel Howell's "Renaissance Rhetoric and Modern Rhetoric: a Study in Change" highlights the fact that rhetorical theory must always reflect the needs of the day in which it is applied. In the Middle Ages, Howell says, rhetorical theory was applied primarily to communication; today it is more closely related to the theory of inquiry.

It is interesting to follow this historical analysis with L. H. Mouat's "An Approach to Rhetorical Criticism," which looks ahead to a unifying medium in which the rationale of informative and suasive discourse may be perfected, and through which the effectiveness of public address may be evaluated. Strongly indebted to Kenneth Burke, Dr. Mouat urges that we retain the essentials of Wichelns' original approach with certain modifications of method.

Good examples of the rhetorical critic at work are furnished by Leland M. Griffin's historical evaluation of "The Rhetorical Structure of the Antimasonic Movement," Frederick G. Marcham's analysis of "Oliver Cromwell, Orator," and Arthur L. Woehl's "Richard Brinsley Sheridan, Parliamentarian." Also interesting, especially in the way it shows the far stretches in meaning encompassed by the term "rhetoric," is Donald C. Bryant's study of the critical work of Sir Philip Sidney, in "A Peece of a Logician: The Critical Essayist as Rhetorician."

The influence of modern psychology is apparent in the fascinating study of "Adolph Hitler and the Technique of Mass Brainwashing," by Ross Scanlon. His frighteningly inevitable conclusion is that Hitler's rise to power is probably a primary result of his careful study of the appeals of propaganda, and his shrewd design for using these appeals. Similarly showing the influence of other disciplines upon our own is Frank S. Freeman's discussion of the "Significance of Verbalization in Psychological Test Responses."

Theatre is represented by Marvin T. Herick's historical analysis of "The Revolt in Tragicomedy Against the Grand Style," and by Barnard Hewitt's essay-speech entitled "A New Path for the Theatre."

The essay on "Rhetoric, Politics, and the Education of the Ready Man," by Karl Wallace is outstanding in its forthright evaluation of our field's pragmatic failure to assist in the development of a suitable methodology for the instruction and development of "ready men." This material is highly pertinent reading for all of us who would develop a philosophy for what we do in speech education.

Different ones will find different things in any book of this type. This particular collection of studies, however, is likely to be especially fruitful, it seems to me, because of the great care of scholarship that is apparent on every page. This is the scholarship of thoughtful men: men who know the background of their professional field and who speak with the assurance of experience. There is little in it that could be called dogmatic. It is not "radical" or "avant garde," for such is not the Cornell tradition. It is instead sound, solid, and aware. Within its variety is the unity of "The Rhetorical Idiom"—a singularly apt title, at once suggestive and descriptive of this excellent volume.

DONALD H. ECROYD  
Michigan State University

THE ART OF PERSUASION. By Wayne C. Minnick. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1957; pp. vii+295. \$4.00.

This is a good, compact, usable text for a persuasion course. Minnick refuses to elaborate the obvious, states his points in terse but adequate style, and refers the student to outside sources for texts of great persuasive speeches.

Possibly the most notable feature of the book is the incorporation of recent research results on such topics as attention, ethical proof, prestige suggestion, etc. A great many studies

are expertly summarized and brought directly to bear upon the problems of persuasion; this book is no mere rehash of classical rhetoric.

Minnick does not side-step the controversial issues in the field. He considers fairly the various psychologies upon which persuasive theories have been based, and plunks squarely for the field theory. He rejects various stereotyped organizational patterns designed to fit any type of speech and recommends structures appropriate to the function of the speech. His discussion of the very touchy matter of ethics is cogent and flexible; he recognizes that no single ethical principle can be applied, and that many principles can be relevant.

This reviewer regards as superior the chapters headed "Getting and Holding Attention," "Winning Belief: The Opinion of Others," "Winning Belief and Action Through Wants and Values," "The Emotions," and "Audience Analysis." The amount of illustrative material throughout seems just right.

Perhaps, had Professor Minnick been writing in the post-Sputnik era, the material on "Weaknesses of the Authoritarian Method" might have been re-written. The method of persuasion may still be superior in some sense to the methods of authority and reflection, but not in all the senses claimed by Minnick.

An attempt to deal with the vitals of logic and argument, condensed as it necessarily is in a book of this sort, can never be completely successful. The chapter titled "Winning Belief: Argument" is clear and unobjectionable, but I cannot help feeling that in a college-level course in persuasion, there would be mandatory and lengthy assignments in a modern logic text. Minnick's treatment of causality, also, seems to neglect modern thinking such as that of Sir Arthur Eddington in his famous essay, *The Decline of Determinism*.

The chapter dealing with problems of linguistic analysis—semantics—although necessarily condensed, is sound and thorough. If only one could dispose of the Madison Avenue boys with as judicially calm an approach!

There are no needless references in the book, and it is not cluttered with page-long bibliographies. The exercises at the ends of chapters are interesting and sensible. It should be thoroughly usable.

ROBERT P. NEWMAN  
University of Pittsburgh

**BASIC VOICE TRAINING FOR SPEECH** (2d ed.). By Elise Hahn, Charles W. Lomas, Donald E. Hargis, and Daniel Vandraegen. New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1957; pp. 246. \$4.75.

The revised *Basic Voice Training for Speech* has benefited from the practical usage to which the earlier edition has been subjected for the past five years, and many improvements are noticeable. The opening chapters, entitled "Critical Listening and Self-Analysis" and "Why You Speak As You Do," as well as several others have been re-written; the organization of the book as a whole has been improved; and new exercises and drill material have been added.

As before, the authors go from the general to the specific (in this case, from vocal production to common vocal disorders) and thereby calculate to capture the interest of even the most lackadaisical student. Information that pertains to each one of us is couched in easily-readable down-to-earth language. There is a minimum of the scientific terminology which so often frightens away the beginning student of speech, yet there is also sufficient information to provide this student with an adequate working knowledge of those processes involved in vocal production.

The authors have retained the personal approach which gives the book a special appeal and is designed to awaken further interest on the part of the student. This reviewer would like to see further expansion of the chapter dealing with vowels and the drill material connected therewith. On the whole, however, the impression is that the authors have done a very satisfactory job in providing what should be at least one of the required texts in a course dealing with vocal development.

MARYLAND WILSON  
Huntingdon College

**PARLIAMENTARY PROCEDURE SIMPLIFIED** (3d ed.). By Melanie F. Menderson. Cincinnati: Dale Press, 1957; iii+143. \$2.75.

"Parliamentary Procedure Simplified," in its revised edition, is truly as easy guide for students and laymen to use in their day-to-day organizational work. The author has not only simplified *Roberts Rules of Order*, but has included chapters on subjects which most parliamentary procedure texts do not cover in as much detail. She has included an excellent chapter on how to form a new organization and one on how to write by-laws for this

organization, giving specific examples. Another very fine section is a detailed explanation of the duties and functions of officers, with excellent samples of how the reports of the various officers should be presented at a meeting.

The remaining two-thirds of the text (Section VII) is a listing and explanation of all motions and parliamentary terms, arranged in alphabetical order. This kind of arrangement is invaluable because of the ease with which information may be found.

For the student and the newly elected president of an organization, the simplification of both rules and explanation make this a very worthwhile text.

H. BARRETT DAVIS  
Lehigh University

**THE REHABILITATION OF SPEECH** (3d ed.). By Robert West, Merla Ansberry, and Anna Carr. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957; pp. 688. \$7.50.

The first edition of this work appeared under the present title in 1937 followed by a revision one decade later. The 1947 edition reflected the changes occurring in the field at that period as new facts and theories supplanted old ones. The present text, still of outstanding value, represents an attempt to improve and modernize in accordance with current research. However, the authors pointedly state in the Preface that "... much material . . . were it not for the ubiquitous problem of costs, would appear in this edition without change. The 'green' edition, therefore, may be regarded as a supplement to the present one."

This book, written for students enrolled in college courses and for professional workers engaged in doing speech therapy, is divided into two sections together with a Glossary and five Appendixes. Book I, "The Pathology of Speech and the Rationale of Its Rehabilitation," deals with the etiology and pathology of the various speech disorders. Book II is entitled "Remedial Procedures" and discusses therapy with special emphasis upon the team approach as the only satisfactory method of attacking many of the more serious problems such as cerebral palsy, cleft palate, stuttering, and aphasia. The Glossary has been expanded and serves the dual purpose of making the text as well as other publications in the field more understandable to the reader. The authors have wisely chosen for the Appendix such material as "Clinical Certification Requirements of the American Speech and Hear-

ing Association," "Tests of Hearing," and "Tests of Articulation." This is a change from the 1947 text.

It should be recognized at the outset that the earlier edition of this book represents a classic in the field. However, the format of the current edition is a noticeable improvement over its predecessors. Relative size of type for chapter headings and subdivisions should appeal to the reader and the modern design of the black and green cover will attract the eye.

Although this text retains a major portion of the contents of former editions, the material has been reorganized and enriched by new data. This is exemplified by the chapters entitled "Aphasia" and "Mongolism" in Book I. The addition of a chapter on procedure for the person with a hearing loss has improved Book II. Chapter headings have been shortened and stated more concisely also. New and vivid photographs of the articulatory positions together with additional pictures and charts make the book of increased worth to the reader.

On the other hand the authors have chosen to omit a listing of Tables, Charts, and Figures from the Table of Contents of the present text. This was a most helpful feature of the second edition. To a veteran in the field the names of Lou Kennedy and Ollie Backus are conspicuous by their absence. In reading Book II the public school speech correctionist will consider the lack of information about group therapy methods a serious omission. Nevertheless the authors are to be congratulated on their excellent revision of a long established and noteworthy text in the field.

RUTH COFFMAN GARRETT  
Marshall College

MANUAL OF AMERICAN ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION (rev. ed.). By Clifford H. Prator, Jr. New York: Rinehart and Co., 1957; pp. xxii+151. \$2.75.

Designed for students from all parts of the world "who have studied English several years back home or who have had some practical experience with the language in this country," most of the materials included in this manual "were tried out repeatedly over a period of several years by different instructors" (xi) at the University of California, Los Angeles. The content and "cyclic arrangement" of the book were arrived at after "a sort of frequency count of the pronunciation difficulties of a group of several hundred average

students for abroad." Observing that "we did not understand them a great deal more than we misunderstood them," the author regards "unintelligibility not as the result of phonemic substitution, but as the cumulative effect of many little departures from the phonetic norms of the language." (xvii-xiv).

Using a slightly modified version of the International Phonetic Alphabet (the vowel symbols [ʌ], [ɜ], [ɛ], [æ], [ɑ] are dropped and [y] is substituted for [j]), the descriptions and exercises are based on the General American dialect of English. Beginning with "those difficulties most prevalent," (xv) the manual is divided into fifteen "lessons." After an introductory chapter on the I.P.A., there are two chapters on vowels, three on stress and intonation, three on consonants, three more on vowels, one on spelling, and two on consonant substitutions. Sixty-five pages—more than one-third of the total—comprise exercises at the ends of lessons.

The manual is clear, generally accurate, and simple. There are at times, however, tendencies toward oversimplification and confusion. For example, [ð] and [θ] are described as interdental instead of dental. Eleven vowel sounds of English are treated instead of the nine symmetrical phonemes now widely accepted among linguists; indeed, it has been the experience of this reviewer that it is easier for most foreign students to master the sounds represented by the I. P. A. [i], [e] and [u] when they are treated as diphthongs. Although the emphasis on the Pike system of intonation is admirable, one of the four degrees of stress is omitted and the misnomer "unstressed" is used to describe vowels with weak stress; "intonation" is considered as related to but not including stress; "inflection" is used to mean change of tone "within a syllable;" and one of the four pitch phonemes is barely mentioned.

Despite its apparent weaknesses, teachers of foreign students will find this manual an excellent basic textbook—if they will "supplement the work of the text in various ways" (xvii) as the author suggests.

H. HARDY PERRITT  
University of Alabama

HOW TO MAKE A SPEECH AND LIKE IT (rev. edition). By Lawrence H. Mouat and Celia Denues. Palo Alto: Pacific Books, 1957; pp. 106. \$2.50 Cloth Binding; \$1.50 Paper Binding.

According to the preface of *How To Make A Speech and Like It*, "The text is brief but not



skimpy. Principles, methods, suggestions, and illustrative materials are pin pointed rather than padded; so that the student will understand quickly what needs to be done and can devote his full time and energy to doing it. The book follows a step-by-step progression in the preparation of any speech; but the information and material included at each stage are sufficient to enable the student to prepare for any specific type of speech."

The first part of this claim by the authors can hardly be questioned. The book is definitely characterized by brevity in the extreme. There is a logical step-by-step development of simplified but informative material presented in outline-like form so generously illustrated with cartoon drawings that many of the 106 pages offer considerably more drawing than information.

This brevity of both content and form, lack of "padding," and emphasis on cartoons, which at first glance might lead one to think the book must be one designed for young children, makes questionable the claim for sufficient informative material and methods "to enable the student to prepare any specific type of speech." The outline of basic principles with examples is hardly sufficient in this respect and would be, therefore, inadequate as the foundation for a thorough course in public speaking.

The volume, read easily in one brief sitting, is certainly different as texts go, and it has considerable attention value because of this difference. It might serve well as a supplement or review manual but hardly offers enough "padding" to be used as a text for a semester course, especially at the college level.

Each of its twelve parts, not numbered or listed as chapters, concludes with a "What To Do," suggestions for related speech activities. A brief bibliography of "padded" texts concludes the book.

HOWARD W. TOWNSEND  
The University of Texas

#### HANDBOOK OF SPEECH PATHOLOGY.

Edited by Lee Edward Travis. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc.; pp. viii+1088. \$12.00.

This book is a colossal repository (1088 pages) of what currently is known and speculated about speech pathology. It is the authors' and editor's hope that it will help "to disseminate existing knowledge of speech, hearing, and voice disorders, to foster a cross-disciplinary approach in the several related

fields of medicine, speech, psychology, and education, and to inspire young clinicians, scholars, and teachers to more creative effort."

The reader will not find a more comprehensive, single introduction to the field of speech pathology. He will undoubtedly find, however, that not all chapters are easy reading. This comment stems from the complexity of the various subjects, and not necessarily from the writing abilities of the authors.

In addition to dealing with the various speech and voice disorders associated with, as well as unrelated to, organic abnormalities, this book includes chapters on the development of speech; the neurophysiology of speech; instruments of diagnosis, therapy and research; incidence of speech disorders; methods of evaluation and diagnosis of speech disorders; play therapy, psychodrama, and parent counseling; the psychotherapeutic process; and group structure in speech therapy.

A review of a book of this importance, giving adequate critical coverage to the work of all its 27 authors, would become exceedingly lengthy, and also exceedingly presumptuous of any one man. By limiting these comments the reviewer opens himself to the same adverse criticism he makes of some of the chapters; namely of the criteria used in delimiting the subject.

Despite the editor's prefatory comments on the problem of all-inclusiveness, I find it difficult to understand the thinking governing the omissions in the chapter titled "Terminology and Nomenclature." In this chapter we can find "kymograph" defined, but not "polygraph." "Delayed speech" is included, but not "speech retardation." The term "side-tone" is defined, but not "delayed feedback." "Rhinolalia" is defined, but without reference to "rhinolalia aperta" and "rhinolalia clausa." It seems to me that the definition proffered for "stuttering" would be viewed as inadequate by each of the four authors contributing chapters on this speech disorder. The frequently used and misused term "learning theory" does not appear in this chapter, *etc., etc.*

In the majority of the cases cited above, the book's index proves more helpful by referring to pages dealing with the given subject. A clear-cut statement on criteria for inclusion or exclusion could have led to a more useful chapter on terminology. At least an attempt to define the entire professional vocabulary used in the rest of the book might have constituted a laudable goal.

The author of this chapter states that "When



the meanings of some technical words are still not agreed upon and different authorities use the same term to mean different things, the whole problem of accuracy is aggravated." This is putting it mildly! One of the greatest problems confronting the research worker is so to define his concepts operationally that they mean the same thing to everyone. It is this desperate need to know what it is we are talking about that makes a chapter on terminology assume such great importance.

The wide coverage of this book of all aspects of speech pathology leads to certain dangers. The reviewer is particularly concerned with the possible repercussions of placing in the hands of beginning students, or nonpathologists, the chapter by the editor titled "The Unspeakable Feelings of People With Special Reference to Stuttering."

Although the author makes some degree of qualification, I fear the non-professional will finish reading this chapter with some very biased and disturbing views of stutterers. Because of this chapter's possible effect on our slight gains in understanding people who exhibit behaviors we call "stuttering," I believe it essential to underscore, amplify, and add to some of the author's explanatory comments on this material.

He notes that these are "a group of people who differ from other people in the degree of motivation for psychotherapy." I would like to reword this as follows: "These are the kind of people who should go to psychiatrists." By this I mean that these cases do not seem typical of the average "garden-variety" of stutterers seen in the average high school or University speech clinic.

I do not question in any way the honesty of the reporter, or the authenticity of these people's "unspeakable feelings." I do, however, feel very strongly that the stutterers who should go to psychiatrists are not a typical or representative sample of the vast number of people who stutter. I feel this so strongly that I believe extreme caution should be exerted in making any inferences from these people herein quoted to the general stutterer population.

These major criticisms do not, however, diminish the value of many other excellent chapters. Not only will professional workers in speech pathology exult in instructive and stimulating chapters dealing with their areas of specialization, they will probably read every last word of this book avidly. To this reviewer, the chapter by Margaret Hall Powers on "Functional Disorders of Articulation—Symptomatology and Etiology" is exceptional in its potential value for stimulating research. The Robert Milisen chapter on "Methods of Evaluation and Diagnosis of Speech Disorders" carries a message of great importance to all correctionists who rely too heavily on standardized tests. It champions the examiner's greatest tool—observation—stating he must "never sacrifice this tool in favor of the standardized testing procedure."

This book will undoubtedly be of tremendous interest to other teachers, as well as specialists in ancillary disciplines. In particular, William Perkins's advice on responsibility in the diagnosis of functional voice disorders should hold great interest for voice and diction teachers and teachers of general speech. Contrary to the normal presentation of "static phonetics" in the majority of Voice and Diction texts, is the newer viewpoint, reiterated by Giles Gray, of "dynamic, functional activity, of movement (of the organs of articulation)." The elementary classroom teacher will probably be extremely interested in the chapters on "Aphasia in Children," in addition to classroom implications in most of the chapters on speech and voice disorders.

These can be only a mere sampling of the possible values to be derived by the various readers of this book. As in any book of this scope there are present some highly controversial ideas which will definitely stimulate all kinds of argumentation and inquiry. In so doing, I suspect this book will more than fulfill the purposes for which it was intended by its editor and authors.

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*Michigan State University*

# IN THE PERIODICALS

Erik Walz, *Editor*

Assisted by Marianne Jaffe

## COMMUNICATION—GENERAL

CLASSE, ANDRE. "The Unusual Whistle Language of the Canary Islanders," *The UNESCO Courier*, No. 11 (November, 1957), 30, 32.

The author, a lecturer on Phonetics at the University of Glasgow, gives a brief but fascinating account of the *silbo* language on the island of La Goner, in the Canary Archipelago. This whistle language was contrived by the people of La Goner because of the steep hills and ravines of the island. It permits the islanders to converse easily across many miles of terrain which ordinarily would take hours to travel.

The author then explains how the simple noise of the whistle is modulated in such a way to fulfill the functions of spoken language. The *silbador*, as this person is called, then tries to use the movements of his speech mechanism as in talking. X-ray photographs, an electronic transcription of a whistled sentence accompany the article.

DUCHAMP, MARCEL. "The Creative Act," *Art News*, Vol. 56, No. 4 (Summer, 1956), 28-29.

Communication is not all in the world of the spoken word. The author briefly discusses the creative act by analyzing the two poles of the creation of art: the artist and the spectator. What he terms in this analysis as the "art coefficient" is what lies between the intention and the expression.

BERNSTEIN, HARRY. "The Arts and the University," *Dance Observer*, Vol. 25, No. 1 (January, 1958), 8-9.

An introductory paragraph describes the crisis which confronts the arts in the United States. There is deep concern "for the place of art in our society. This concern is not only for making available the cultural riches of the past but with the furthering of a wide spread experimentation of creative ideas and techniques." The author goes on to say that recognition of this problem is evidenced by a graduate program at the School of Education, New York University in Creative Arts. This

graduate program is concerned "specifically to performance in the arts such as sculpture, crafts, painting, the novel, poetry, drama, dance, the movement arts, music, the cinema, television and the visual fields implied in aesthetic experience." The problems of setting up a program, a method of validation, the difficulties of obtaining such a degree, an understanding of other fine arts, are phases discussed.

GRAHAM, MARTHA. "A Dancer's World," *Dance Observer*, Vol. 25, No. 1 (January, 1958), 5.

"Dance is communication and the great desire is to speak clearly, beautifully and with inevitability." Miss Graham, in this short script written and spoken by her as a running commentary for the film, "A Dancer's World," speaks some inspiring truths for the artist dancer. But they are truths and observations applicable to all others who are concerned with the arts.

WARREN, CONSTANCE. "What Makes a Good College Teacher?" *Journal of the American Association of University Women*, Vol. 51, No. 2 (January, 1958), 85-88.

The author, in speaking about the qualities that make a good college teacher, points out that different types of colleges need different types of teachers. In all instances, however, colleges seek teachers who are scholars. Breadth of scholarship as well as depth, a curiosity to grow intellectually, personal adjustment, ethical implications of subject matter taught, evaluation and experimentation of methods are discussed.

BARBARA, DOMINICK A. "Don't Be Afraid of Silence," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VI, No. 1 (January, 1958), 13-14.

The author speaks first of "people's urge to talk for talk's sake." In social conversation, a desire to talk, becomes the important factor, while subject matter, takes second place. People, if they encouraged the use of silence within themselves, might help this communication evil. To become silent, and to look actively within

ourselves, according to the author, will result in a more "truthful and healthy pattern of existence."

HENDERSON, GEORGE F. "Oral Communication Needs in Industry," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VI, No. 1 (January, 1958), 21-23.

Top management in industry, according to the author, feels that speaking, like eating and drinking, comes naturally. It is unfortunate that oral communication is so unguided that it prevents efficient oral communication in American Industry. Four basic barriers can be overcome by considering these three areas: "(1) to sell top management that oral communication needs exist, (2) to have something to sell top management to meet these needs, and (3) to analyze the speech needs in industry."

PHILLIPS, DAVID C. "But Do The Dogs Like It," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VI, No. 1 (January, 1958), 5-6.

"Adjusting ideas to people and people to ideas" is the opening statement and definition of communication given by the writer. He expands with illustrations four basic questions that are necessary for the communicator to consider as he adjusts his speaking to the listener and the specific situation.

#### ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

JACOBS, LELAND B. "Enjoy Literature at School," *Education*, Vol. 78, No. 5 (January, 1958), 259-262.

The writer sets forth seven stimulating suggestions to teachers on how to bring the rich resources of books and children together. Reading aloud, encouraging children's creative responses to literature through interpretative oral reading, reporting, dramatization, and choral reading are areas mentioned.

RAUBINGER, FREDERICK M. "Improving Instruction Is Your Business," *The Education Digest*, Vol. XXIII, No. 6 (February, 1958), 11-13.

The author stresses the fact that today there must be strong leadership among principals in order that they may give guidance to the inexperienced and poorly prepared teacher. He cites four major trends for the leaders in elementary education to consider. They are (1) "education by foundation," (2) "education by automation," (3) "education by acceleration," and (4) "education by separation." The author

concludes that it is time for the leaders to speak out and "declare themselves concerning the purposes of the elementary schools."

MILLER, CARL G. "Is Correct English Worth the Price?" *The Education Digest*, Vol. XXIII, No. 6 (February, 1958), 32-33.

With a touch of humor, an English teacher discusses the problem of how we should talk. After many years of observation, he comes to the conclusion that the teaching of grammar is not being done well enough in the high schools. If grammar were taught more thoroughly in the high schools, there might not be so many who not only do not know it but have no desire to know it.

MORROW, ANN ESS. "What Is Poetry," *Education*, Vol. 78, No. 5 (January, 1958), 269-272.

In an imaginary conversation between pupils and teacher, the author brings out most effectively the basic qualities in the understanding and appreciation of poetry. These concepts of poetry are expressed in such a way that they will have meaning to children.

SANSON, CLIVE. "How To Teach Speech in the Schools," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VI, No. 1 (January, 1958) 18, 34.

The author, Director of Speech in the schools of Tasmania, sets forth a brief outline of speech problems in elementary and high schools. His conclusion stresses the fact that children, just like adults, must be exposed to an ideal speech situation. It is one in which the speaker has something which he "genuinely wants to say and which the listener genuinely wants to hear."

#### LINGUISTICS

LISKER, LEIGH. "Linguistic Segments, Acoustic Segments and Synthetic Speech," *Language*, Vol. 33, No. 3 (July-September, 1957) 370-374.

Acoustic analysis and synthetic speech are the two main divisions for discussion in this article. The author, from data obtained via synthesis, sums up a few cautious generalizations as follows: "(1) A finite number of acoustic segments, each defined with respect to a small number of dimensions, can be arranged in time sequence in such a way that they are perceived as speech. (2) the number of acoustic segments needed for a given speech signal is not smaller and generally is greater, than the number of phones posited by the linguist. (3) For some phones there exists a many-one relation between acoustic segments and phones, so

that a given phone may be said to comprise a class of 'allosones' whose distributions can be described by reference to features in their acoustic environments. (4) The classes of phones established at the motor phonetic level (which agree closely with the classes based on distribution) find a high degree of corroboration at the acoustic level, so that the members of any one class are differentiable by variations within a relatively small number of acoustic dimensions."

#### PUBLIC SPEAKING AND DISCUSSION

MUSKIE, EDMUND S. "Debating as an Influence in the Career of a Public Servant," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VI, No. 1 (January, 1958), 3-4.

Governor Edmund S. Muskie of Maine delivered this address at an American Forensic Association meeting in Boston. Because of its success, it has been written up for this publication by the Governor. The author writes with humor but has some good common sense advice to give. He states with effectiveness that the development of leadership in a democratic society has a direct relationship to the art of debate. He concludes with reference to his training in debate at Bates College and how that background enabled him to have success in the Democratic victories of 1954 and 1956.

HALLWORTH, H. J. "Group Discussion in its Relevance to Teacher-Training," *Educational Review*, Vol. 10, No. 1 (November, 1957), 41-53.

The author states that in recent years there has been an increasing use of group discussion in college courses, particularly the "professional" courses. He then presents three basic aims of group discussion and the conditions for effective discussion. The author stresses the importance of educating students in these skills. He concludes with a detailed recording of the reactions of a group in interpretative group discussion which met three times a week over a period of two years.

DRUM, DALE D. "The Power of Defensive Thinking," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VI, No. 1 (January, 1958), 7.

The writer seems to feel that people ordinarily prefer defensive thinking to realistic analysis. Demagogues of the world can do great harm to democratic principles when the techniques of modern communication are used for dishonest ends. Rationalization, displacement, fantasy projection, and identification are the mechanisms discussed by the writer and, as he points out, used by these demagogues.

RICE, GEORGE P. JR., and STATON, ROBERT H. "The Attorney-Client Interview," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VI, No. 1 (January, 1958), 10-11.

The attorney, starting out in business, receives some practical and helpful advice on how to handle the first interview with a new client. Sympathetic, patient listening, good will, practical wisdom are some general attributes worth developing. Specific questions, note taking, screening of material and a bibliography are other helpful suggestions found in this article.

DANCE, FRANCIS E. X. "The Technical Speaker and the General Audience," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VI, No. 1 (January, 1958), 24-25.

The problem of the *technical man* who must deliver a speech to a general audience is discussed by the writer. The author makes three suggestions for the technical man to follow in order to make a successful speech. Deal with familiar material, plan the speech carefully and dramatize.

DAVIS, JOHN A. "Making Visuals Aid," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VI, No. 1 (January, 1958), 31-32.

A device commonly used in public speaking is the visual aid. This is first defined for the prospective speaker. Secondly, the kinds of visual aids that can be used are listed. It is essential, finally, that these aids meet the standards of visibility, simplicity and coordination to be effective.

OLIVER, EGHERT S. "Further Considerations on Unexpected Speech Situations," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VI, No. 1 (January, 1958), 33-34.

"To retain your poise as a speaker, to retain your appropriate attitude toward the audience and do your best to fulfill your speech obligation" is the answer the author gives to Professor Howard Runkel's article "How to Meet Unexpected Speech Situations" in the November issue of *Today's Speech*.

#### ORAL INTERPRETATION

FLEMING, RUDD. "The Difficult Materials of Poetry," *Journal of the American Association of University Women*, Vol. 51, No. 2 (January, 1958), 99-100.

The author emphasizes that the arts are dependent on the materials used. The artist must love his materials or he will be no artist. With the poet, it is the use of words. "He is a word worker; words are the bricks with which he builds." After the author's discussion on the difficulty of writing poetry, he touches up-

on the equal difficulty of reading poetry. Impatience in trying to understand a poem often results in the reader never understanding it.

COGER, LESLIE IRENE. "Let's Act Poetry," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXIX, No. 6 (March, 1958), 15.

Suggestions are given in this article to those who have not mastered the elements of poetry. It is a way to learn something of poetic form in order to share its beauty with an audience. The author calls it poetry portrayal which requires the skills of the actor and the techniques of oral interpretation.

#### DRAMATICS

MCGLINCHIE, CLAIRE. "Stratford, Connecticut, Shakespeare Festival 1957," *Shakespeare Quarterly*, Vol. VIII, No. 4 (Autumn, 1957), 507-510.

The purpose of the Stratford Festival is "To present Shakespeare to the young people in such a way that the plays become living beautiful, exciting and enduring." In the authors' criticisms of "Othello," "Merchant of Venice," and "Much Ado About Nothing" the realization of these aims has been attained to a certain degree. The Stratford Festival evidently has not achieved these objectives completely.

EDINBOROUGH, ARNOLD. "Canada's Permanent Elizabethan Theatre," *Shakespeare Quarterly*, Vol. VIII, No. 4 (Autumn, 1957), 511-514.

A brief description is given of the physical plant of the new theatre at Stratford, Ontario. It should be of interest to all concerned with the theatre. Walter Kerr summed up his impression by stating it is a "dazzlingly handsome and superbly functional playhouse—the only real new stage and the only really new actor-audience experience of the last hundred years on this continent." The two productions for this season, "Hamlet" and "Twelfth Night," were considered notable.

GRIFFIN, ALICE. "Shakespeare in New York City, 1956-1957," *Shakespeare Quarterly*, Vol. VIII, No. 4 (Autumn, 1957), 515-519.

The Shakespeare season in New York City is reviewed by the author. It consisted of four productions presented by the Old Vic, from England, at the Winter Garden theatre. In addition, three works were offered by the Summer Shakespeare Festival, an American organization. These plays were produced in the parks of New York City. Comments on the productions and the players were good.

SHEDD, ROBERT G. "Shakespeare at Antioch, 1957. Past Record and Present Achievement," *Shakespeare Quarterly*, Vol. VIII, No. 4 (Autumn, 1957), 521-525.

The Antioch Shakespeare Festival has concluded its first five years of producing the entire works of Shakespeare. The organization has now begun a more modest schedule of repertory. The successes and pitfalls of the first five years are reviewed as a preliminary understanding and explanation of the present season's repertory.

JURGENSEN, KAI. "Producing on a Shoestring," *Players Magazine*, Vol. 34, No. 4 (January, 1958), 76-77.

This is Part IV on a series of articles to help the high school teacher keep the cost of producing a play to a minimum. Helpful suggestions concerning costumes and set are given using *Macbeth* as an example. A second production, a medieval farce, is used to illustrate the possibility of an arena style of staging.

ROBINSON, MARION. "Frank Lloyd Wright and Theatre," *Players Magazine*, Vol. 34, No. 4 (January, 1958), 77-78.

Mr. Wright is best known as a designer of commercial buildings and private homes. Although always interested in theatre art and the housing of it, he has never contributed greatly in this field. But now his theatre idea of twenty five years ago, which he called The New Theatre, is being readapted to the needs of a theatre in Dallas, Texas. A brief description of the physical plant is set forth by the author. According to the author, it is a design which would be ideal for college or university theatre.

DAVIS, JED H. "The Portal—A Partial Answer," *Players Magazine*, Vol. 34, No. 4 (January, 1958), 79.

This is an article useful for those concerned with the technical phase of the theatre. The portal or false proscenium was used by the author when touring his productions and was confronted with stages of varied sizes. Diagrams and a description of how to build the portal concludes the article.

SCHARY, DORE. "F.D.R. in Dramatic Focus," *Theatre Arts*, Vol. XLII, No. 2 (February, 1958), 63-64.

In 1937, the author finally achieved a Broadway production of his play "Too Many Heroes," which hardly could be called a success. Twenty-one years later the author turns to playwright-



ing again and "Sunrise at Campobello" is the result. An interesting account of how this play developed into the completed script makes for enjoyable reading.

HARDWICKE, CEDRIC. "An Actor Stakes His Claim." *Theatre Arts*, Vol. XLII, No. 2 (February, 1958), 66-67.

Cedric Hardwicke discusses the role of the actor in the theatre of today. As he looks back on his youth, he regards that period as the actor's theatre; with the arrival of Bernard Shaw, came the playwrights theatre; and today, it is the director's theatre. He feels that creativity in the actor has almost disappeared because of the craze for realism. To be sure there is talent among actors, but it is not developed or used to its greatest capacity. Mr. Hardwicke considers that the actor has a far better opportunity to learn his craft in England than in America. He also has something to say about the theatre-going publics of England and the United States, and the so called method.

HANNAH, JACK. "Purdue University," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXIX, No. 5 (February, 1958), 12-13.

The Seventh National Dramatic Arts Conference will be sponsored by the National Thespian Society and the Department of Theatre of Purdue University at Purdue. This is an informative article about Purdue University, one of four state-supported schools of Indiana.

MILLER, MARGARETTE S. "All Teachers Are Thespians," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXIX, No. 5 (February, 1958), 14.

The author bases her article on the ridiculous assumption that all teachers are thespians. Nothing could be further from the truth. However, if a school wishes to promote a friendlier atmosphere among faculty, raise money for the students, promote a community spirit, this is probably a painful way of doing it.

DUSENBURY, DELWIN B. "Variety and Vaudeville," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXIX, No. 5 (February, 1958), 15.

This is a brief but nostalgic account of the history of the American Musical Theatre. The author traces its development from the days of fifteenth century France and eighteenth century England. Many of the great names are mentioned with a conclusion which reviews the types of acts and performers found in American vaudeville. The popularity of this

theatre spanned approximately sixty years in the United States.

COGER, LESLIE IRENE. "So You Want To Make Them Laugh," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXIX, No. 5 (February, 1958), 19.

The author gives some helpful advice to the actor or the interpretative reader on how to put comedy over to an audience. Great skill is needed and the techniques outlined have been used with great success by generations of comedians.

MOREHOUSE, WARD. "The Berlin Baedeker," *Theatre Arts*, Vol. XLII, No. 2 (February, 1958), 27-29.

Irving Berlin spends a nostalgic evening with the author visiting the lower east side where Berlin grew up. It is a sentimental journey bringing back by gone days and the thought of how good America had been to him in his rise from poverty to greatness in show business.

ROBERTS, LLOYD E. "Do It Yourself," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXIX, No. 6 (March, 1958), 11.

Many high schools throughout the country are faced with the shortage of class room facilities. Theatre groups in secondary schools for this reason, often find themselves in need of theatre space not only for classes but also for performances. The author describes how he solved this dilemma by converting a storeroom in a basement area, into a theatre-in-the-round classroom.

STEVENS, DORIS. "Try Shakespeare," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXIX, No. 6 (March, 1958), 13.

The author, while searching for a play to complete her production schedule for the year, decided with some hesitation, to try a Shakespearean comedy with her high school students. The article tells of the success of this venture and how beneficial to young students such an experience can be if good educational methods are used.

TRUMBO, CHARLES R., and POLLYANN. "From Katharine of Aragon to Anne Boleyn," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXIX, No. 5 (February, 1958), 18.

Costumes are described in detail which were worn by royalty in the time of Henry VIII. Two sketches, one of Katharine of Aragon, the other of Anne Boleyn, are included and might be of use to the novice costume designer.

GASSNER, JOHN. "Eugene O'Neill: The Course of a Modern Dramatist," *Critique*, Vol. I, No. 1 (February, 1958), 5-14.

The return of O'Neill to the theatrical season of 1956-57 with five productions shows that the power and popularity of this playwright has not diminished. The distinguished author of this article does not consider it necessary to defend America's major playwright to his detractors. But he now examines O'Neill "with a view to striking a just balance between merit and defect." In conclusion, he finds that O'Neill was not a completely "integrated artist" but that "his interest and power in the theatre were derived from his divideness."

HERMAN, GEORGE. "The Illegitimate Art," *Critique*, Vol. I, No. 1 (February, 1958), 15-23.

In recent years the writer has become aware of an increasing demand "for information about musicals available for inexperienced voices, shadowy budgets and untrained directors in Catholic colleges and high schools." He goes on to say that the "one-time 'illegitimate art' of musical comedy is, at last, being recognized as an art form worthy of production and study in our Catholic institutions." This is the first of two articles on the American Musical Theatre. Part I discusses the solidification of this particular form of theatre in America and the

confusing, contradictory terminology used. Part II traces the elements "borrowed" from European operatic forms. An excellent chart of the evolution of American opera is included together with a bibliography.

#### RADIO, TELEVISION, FILM

COOPER, BERNARR. "Assessing the Future in Educational Television," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VI, No. 1 (January, 1958), 28-30.

The writer presents to the reader the potentials and limitations of television as he assesses the future of educational television. In the final analysis, he feels this question still must be answered by: "What shall we do with this medium for all citizenry, of all ages, whatever their previous learning experience?"

PHILLIPS, ROBERT J. "Action: Camera!" *Dramatics*, Vol. XXIX, No. 6 (March, 1958), 12.

The author presents the problems of making a movie film of a one-act play with his high school students. Lighting, staging, the set, recording and synchronizing sound, costuming and makeup provided a challenge to the students. To the author it was an excellent way of promoting public relations and teaching the fundamentals of a dramatic arts program.

# AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

Jon Hopkins, *Editor*

**MARCEL MARCEAU'S PANTOMIMES.** A George K. Arthur Presentation. Available from Brandon Films, Inc., 200 West 37th Street, New York 19, N. Y. 1956. 13 mins. Sound. Color. Sale: \$145. Rental: \$12.50 per day.

*Pantomimes* is composed of three of Marceau's pantomimes: "David and Goliath," "The Butterfly Chase," and "The Lion Tamer." This film would be an excellent adjunct to the teaching of bodily movement and control. Marceau almost dances his emotions to his audience. With close observation, one notices that every inch of the artist's body is constantly being used to express an idea. There is never an indication that the legs are simply supporting the trunk; rather, all portions are supporting the emotion. Even when there is no bodily movement, an attitude is positively expressed. Therefore, one finds it easy to focus his attention on the proper action and to appreciate Marceau's thoughts. *Pantomimes* is a film to be enjoyed, and it is extremely informative to the drama student.

"David and Goliath" is a delightful comedy pantomime in which Marceau demonstrates his technical skill through the switching from David to Goliath with such rapidity that the viewer soon believes both characters are present at the same time. Goliath has only one personality presented in the story while David has two; the shepherd and the people's defender. David's characters are well delineated; the transition from one character to the other is done superbly in full view of the audience.

"The Butterfly Chase" is a masterpiece of art; comparable to lyric poetry. The importance of the pantomime is in the expression of ecstasy felt while chasing, catching, and holding a fluttering butterfly. The pantomime reaches its climax when one butterfly is held too tightly and dies. One is compelled to express sympathy when he sees the compassion being projected by the artist. As a result of the many fine shadings of emotion presented, "The Butterfly Chase" is most valuable to the sophisticated drama student.

"The Lion Tamer" serves as an adequate conclusion. A clear picture of the outward

braveness and the inner fear of the lion tamer is vividly portrayed.

The film has some technical strengths and weaknesses. The length is an advantage for educational use. It is possible to introduce, view and discuss the film during a normal class period. Marceau presents such a magnitude of minute details in the presentation of an emotion that, without a carefully planned introduction and a skillfully guided discussion following the viewing, it is impossible to gain a reasonably complete understanding of much more than his gross movements.

All three pantomimes are filmed with one camera positioned center front. There are no changes in the field of view excepting an occasional closeup. However, one does not notice the lack of camera movement unless it is brought to his attention.

The color, although excellent in some places and particularly in "The Butterfly Chase," is not of high enough quality to keep it from being distracting. Also, the writer feels the film is more effective when viewed with the absence of sound. Marceau really needs no "help" from color or sound to be effective.

*Pantomimes* is an excellent teaching aid for the serious drama student. With careful study, he can gain many new insights into bodily control, representation without duplication, and mood creation.

DAVID CROPP

State University of Iowa

**IS THERE COMMUNICATION WHEN YOU SPEAK?** McGraw-Hill. 1957. 17 min. (Sound). Black and White. Sale: \$95. Rental: apply.

From the predicament of a college man having trouble giving directions to a pretty co-ed, this film moves into a treatment of the broad subject of how to communicate an idea from the mind of the speaker into the minds of individuals in the audience.

It covers nearly every major aspect of communication from the clarity of the original idea to purpose, theme, organization, vocal expression, bodily expression, interest, and the circular response from the speaker to the audience and back to the speaker.

This film provides a broad coverage of the process of oral communication and could be valuable in introducing or summarizing a high school, beginning college, or adult class in speech.

DAVID M. JABUSCH  
*Pennsylvania State University*

**SAY WHAT YOU MEAN.** McGraw-Hill. 1957. 20 min. (Sound). Black and White. Sale: \$110. Rental: apply.

In its treatment of language as the principal medium of speech communication, this film offers some "dos" and "don'ts" in the choice and use of words.

By taking the viewer into a college speech class, it vividly dramatizes the use of language which is clear, appropriate, interesting and forceful. It also deals with imagery, rhythm and the use of clichés.

Although it occasionally violates its own injunction not to sound like a text book, this film could be useful in an elementary college or adult public speaking course in supplementing a discussion of language and style.

Only a very advanced high school class would be likely to benefit from the lesson this film portrays.

DAVID M. JABUSCH  
*Pennsylvania State University*

**GETTING YOURSELF ACROSS.** McGraw-Hill. 1957. 21 min. (Sound). Black and White. Sale: \$115. Rental: apply.

A college professor is preparing to meet his speech class for the last time. Some of his students come to see him about personal matters, and he mentally compares their personalities with the personalities they had at the beginning of the course.

By employing the before-after approach this film deals with the impact of the total personality on the speaking situation. The focus is on personal or ethical proof. It also does an admirable job of "selling" a speech course by demonstrating its effects on the personality of various students. Allusions are made to organization, preparation, need for evidence stage-fright, self-confidence, sincerity, and vitality in speaking.

The film could be used profitably in a high school, beginning college, or adult public speaking class as a supplement to a discussion of ethical proof. It would also be worthwhile

for motivating interest in speech or for promoting a speech program.

DAVID M. JABUSCH  
*Pennsylvania State University*

**WATCH THAT QUOTATION.** Coronet Instructional Film. 1949. 10 minutes (Sound). Sale: Black and white, \$45.00; color, \$100. Rental: apply.

One of the common faults of the student speaker is his tendency to quote inaccurately. Sometimes an unintentional and apparently unimportant variation from the actual quotation from an authority can give a distorted or a completely incorrect impression.

This short film, designed for the junior high or high school level, opens by showing a group of teen-agers playing the game, "Whispering," in which a short sentence is whispered from one person to another. The amusing and surprisingly inaccurate result of such quoting points out clearly what can happen in quoting others.

The film then moves to a consideration of quoting in more serious circumstances and shows that inaccurate quoting can result in unfortunate misunderstandings and confusions. The film proceeds to demonstrate the importance of exact, direct quotation word for word; it underscores the necessity of checking the quote with the one quoted and of making certain that a paraphrased quote contains the meaning and intent of the original; it stresses the need for the one quoted being an authority upon the subject.

J. Paul Leonard of San Francisco State College, educational consultant for the film, has included the essentials for quoting not only in speeches, but also in writing. He stresses that another important aspect of accurate quoting is accurate punctuation of the written quote.

The film is presented in an interesting, informative manner and should be required viewing by student speakers.

RAY H. SANDEFUR  
*University of Akron*

**DISCUSSION IN DEMOCRACY.** Coronet Films. Ideal Pictures, 58 E. S. Water Street, Chicago 1, Ill. Sale: black and white, \$45; color, \$90. Rental: apply.

*Discussion in Democracy* is a film designed to show the function of discussion as a democratic technique, and to encourage thorough preparation and organization for discussion.

The consultant was Dr. W. G. Brink, School of Education, Northwestern University.

The film begins with a group of high school students in a confused and disorderly argument over the merits of a fire prevention program. They discover that the argument is futile since they lack background information and organization. The group leader visits a local councilman who informs the student that the discussion project which they are undertaking is similar to the procedure of the city council. Upon the request by the student for information on how to conduct the discussion, the councilman says that a good discussion needs organization and must work for a solution. The leader must help the discussion participants to agree, he must encourage preparation, plan the discussion, and consider the personalities of the people involved. As the result of the interview, the student leader prepares an outline and divides the sections of the outline among the group members according to their abilities and interests. The discussion participants now interview people, write letters, and read available material. When the group meets the next time, the members individually report; they discover that they are able to reach a sound conclusion.

The title suggests that the film shows the value of discussion in a democracy. This goal is achieved to a limited extent. What actually develops as the main emphasis is that a good discussion must be organized, and that thorough preparation is necessary to reach sound conclusions. With this emphasis, the film should be an excellent motivating device at the beginning of a unit in discussion. The film fails to suggest that there are other types of discussion than that depicted; therefore, the instructor should take care to point out the difference if another type of discussion is being employed. The discussion progression and techniques are not as clearly indicated as many instructors may desire. The film is suitable for all courses that offer an introductory unit of discussion.

THOMAS OLBRIGHT  
*University of Dubuque*

**THE NO-HOWE TEST FOR ENGLISH CONSONANT SOUNDS.** By Mary Noble Smith. Go-Mo Products, Inc., Waterloo, Iowa. Sale: \$2.00.

This is a set of 25 flash cards for testing children's articulation of 25 English consonant sounds. On each of the 6½ by 9½ inch cards appear two or three ink drawings of objects representing initial, medial, and final positions

of each consonant. Record blanks and instructions are also included.

On an instruction card the author says, "The test is easily and accurately administered by speech therapists, nurses, classroom teachers, and parents." Probably only the first of the people mentioned would be trained well enough to use an articulation picture test "easily and accurately" in the opinion of the reviewer. Occasionally a classroom teacher will have enough background in speech work to do an accurate articulation test. Perhaps the author should have restricted her recommendation of the material to trained speech correctionists. Without doubt, there are opportunities for the speech therapist to pass on such material as these to classroom teachers and parents when proper demonstration of therapy techniques can be accomplished. Is it not a mistake to encourage untrained personnel to feel that they can use an articulation test "easily and accurately?"

In two paragraphs on a second instruction card the author attempts to give classroom teachers and parents an outline for correction of articulation errors. In the opinion of the reviewer, it is impossible to teach speech therapy procedures in two short paragraphs and it is unwise to encourage the untrained to attempt therapy for which they are not equipped. Even though excellent reading references are listed to support the information printed on the card, it is doubtful that even by reading everything so listed a parent or teacher could qualify herself to do a job of speech therapy. Perhaps the author should have designated her materials as articulation test and therapy materials for the speech correctionist.

The cards are numbered in what the author calls "arbitrary" order. It would have been a help to the therapist had they been arranged in some logical fashion. Perhaps the plosives should be together in voiced and voiceless pairs, followed by the fricatives so paired, etc. Or perhaps, the sounds should have been arranged in developmental order or in order of most frequent errors among lower grade children. The "arbitrary" order may not be confusing to the tester but it certainly does not provide him with a helpful organization. Perhaps, also, the author might have indicated those cards which would constitute a quick articulation test for screening purposes. These things may have made the cards more useful.

WAYNE L. THURMAN  
*Eastern Illinois University*



# THE BULLETIN BOARD

Ordean G. Ness, *Editor*

## THE HIGH SCHOOL QUESTIONS

The Committee on Discussion and Debate Materials of the National University Extension Association announces that the problem for the discussion and debate series for next year has now been chosen. The problem concerns American education. It is stated as follows, with alternative discussion questions and debate propositions:

**Problem Area:** What system of education would best serve the interests of the people of the United States?

### *Discussion Problems*

1. What features of British education would best serve the interests of the people of the United States?
2. What features of French education would best serve the interests of the people of the United States?
3. What features of Russian education would best serve the interests of the people of the United States?

### *Debate Propositions*

1. Resolved: That the United States should adopt the essential features of the British system of education.
2. Resolved: That the United States should adopt the essential features of the French system of education.
3. Resolved: That the United States should adopt the essential features of the Russian system of education.

Anyone interested in participating in the program should get in touch with Bower Aly, Executive Secretary, Committee on Discussion and Debate Materials, 209 Villard Hall, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon.

## CONFERENCES, CONVENTIONS, FESTIVALS, INSTITUTES, AND WORKSHOPS

At the opening session of the 1957 convention in Chicago, the Central States Speech Association made its first presentation to "outstanding young teachers of speech." Nominations were solicited from speech department chairmen. The following criteria were recommended: sense of mission, love of people, love of his

work, intellectual honesty, thorough knowledge of his subject, nonauthoritarian attitude, understanding of students, and ability to create student interest. From these nominations, thirteen teachers, one from each of the states represented in the CSSA, were selected. The award recipients are: Jack D. Arnold, University of Illinois, Chicago; Eugene Bristow, Indiana University; F. Fulton Ross, Davenport (Iowa) Senior High School; Charles Goetzinger, Kansas State College; Murray Hewgill, Michigan State University; Arthur Housman, St. Cloud (Minnesota) State College; Ronald F. Reid, Washington University, St. Louis; Catherine Moodie, University of Nebraska; Erwin Bitz, Grand Forks (N. Dak.) Public Schools; Goodwin Berquist, Jr., Ohio State University; Mrs. David E. Tull, Enid (Oklahoma) Community Speech and Hearing Clinic; Donald E. Sikkink, South Dakota State College; Mrs. Marie W. Holmes, Prescott (Wisconsin) High School.

The following officers were elected for the SAA secondary school interest group for 1958: Chairman, Maybelle Conger, Oklahoma City, Okla. High School; Vice-Chairman, Freda Kenner, Messick High School, Memphis, Tenn.; Secretary, Ralph Lane, Glenbrook High School, Northbrook, Ill.; Delegate to the Legislative Assembly, Ralph McGee, New Trier High School, Winnetka, Ill.; Advisory Council, Milton Dobkin, Humboldt State College, Arcata, Calif.

Northwestern University held its 28th annual National High School Institute in Speech from June 29 through August 2 on campus. In attendance were 199 students from some 37 states. They worked in three divisions: Public Speaking and Debate, Drama, and Radio-Television-Film. A special feature of this session was the experimental project in the use of creative film. Ten students wrote their own script, did the shooting, edited and titled the film, added the sound track, and gave a final showing of it at the Radio-TV-Film demonstration at the close of the session. In addition to this activity, members of this section

ran station WNUR during the summer, and produced a closed-circuit television show which they wrote. The debaters studied both the Education question and the Labor question in preparation for discussion and contest debating. Drama students presented eight productions as final projects in their field. Approximately 40 instructors worked with the students this summer.

The California Speech and Hearing Association will hold its convention October 24 and 25 at the Lafayette Hotel, Long Beach, California. Features of the program include addresses by Dr. Charles Van Riper and Dr. Michael D'Asaro, demonstrations in aphasia clinical work at Long Beach Veteran's Hospital conducted by Dr. J. M. Nielsen, and ten sectional meetings on specific speech and hearing disorders.

The United States Chamber of Commerce established one of six Training Programs for Directors on the University of Colorado campus July 6 to 11. Thorrel Fest, chairman of the Speech Department, served as Coordinator of Instruction, teaching the units on communication. Victor Harnack taught the units on public speaking.

Fifty students attended the University of Colorado annual summer High School Speech Institute. With Barbara Schindler serving as associate director, Ernest Pech headed the dramatic section and Rex Robinson directed the forensic section.

The first Debate and Interpretation Workshop has been established for the high schools of Georgia through the cooperation of the Georgia High School Association. On successive Saturdays in the fall of 1958 selected high schools will bring their top debaters and oral readers to the University of Georgia campus to work on principles and fundamentals of debate and interpretation. Members of the Department of Speech and Drama staff who will work with the high school students include Dr. Leight M. Ballew, Dr. James E. Popovich, and Professor Arthur Fear.

The Eleventh Annual State Speech and Drama Festival will be held in the Department of Speech and Drama at the University of Georgia on January 23 and 24. Winning plays and top high school debaters will meet for the state finals of the Georgia High School Association's

Literary Meet which is held in conjunction with the Speech and Drama Festival. Programs on play selection and technical problems for high school theatre form an integral part of the program.

Purdue University was host to the National Dramatic Arts conference of the National Thespian society, June 16 to 21. Over 850 Thespians from thirty-two states participated in the workshops in acting and directing, costuming, make-up, stagecraft and lighting, arena staging and rehearsal techniques, and a workshop in drama problems after high school. Thirteen plays were presented during the week, and the conference ended with the third annual variety show.

A workshop in Play Production for School and Community, giving three hours of graduate credit, was held at Purdue University, June 22 to July 18. The whole process of play production was considered, with particular emphasis given to the specific problems of the teachers enrolled.

The University of Illinois Summer Session and Department of Speech conducted the eighth annual Illinois Summer Youth Theater June 15 to 29. Members of the program were chosen from talented students recommended by their high school dramatics directors. In addition to preparing plays for public production, the members received instruction in make-up, basic acting techniques, and production. Miss Mary Arbenz and Miss Clara Behringer were in charge of the training.

The Seventh Annual Illinois Summer Debaters' Workshop was held on the University of Illinois campus June 15 to 28. Sixteen outstanding debaters from Illinois high schools were selected for practical instruction in debate techniques, in preparing briefs and cases, and in actual debate experience on next year's national high school propositions. Prof. Wayne E. Brockriede, supervisor of forensics, directed the workshop.

The annual Summer Festival of Art at Louisiana State University included a lecture by Prof. B. Iden Payne of the University of Texas. Also featured was an evening of one-act plays by Eugene O'Neill. Prof. John Dietrich, Ohio State University, was the conference speaker at the 24th Annual Conference on Speech Education at LSU June 10 to 19.

The Department of Speech and the Industrial Relations Institute of Wayne State University and the University of Michigan co-operated in an Institute on Communications in Collective Bargaining last May. A similar institute was held for personnel directors of Lenawee County.

The first annual Summer Theater Workshop at the University of Minnesota Duluth Branch was directed by Prof. William R. Morgan. The workshop included graduate, undergraduate and high school groups. Three dramas were staged three nights each.

The North Central Theater Association will hold its 1958-59 annual convention at the University of Minnesota, Duluth Branch, November 7 and 8. Harold Hayes, Director of The University Theater, is President of the Association.

The speech department of New Jersey State Teachers College at Montclair held its fourth annual Speech Institute last spring. The theme of the Institute was "Careers in Speech." Dr. Magdalene Kramer, Teachers College, Columbia University, was the principal speaker. Over seven hundred high school students, teachers and administrators attended. An exhibition of speech materials was arranged by college students displaying their own work as well as materials used by alumni currently engaged in the teaching of speech in the state.

The Sixth Annual Speech Roundup for high school students was held on the campus of the University of Houston from July 28 to August 8. Courses were offered in areas of drama, debate, interpretation and declamation, oratory and extemp speaking, and radio-TV.

A conference on dramatics and forensics was held by the Virginia Speech and Drama Association at the University of Virginia in Charlottesville on February 14. The conference featured sessions on the college drama curriculum, radio drama, high school debating, oral reading for contests, high school drama clubs, aphasia, and festival drama. The Second Annual Conference on Public Affairs was also held in conjunction with the conference.

An "FM Station Clinic" was held on the University of Wisconsin campus on May 23 with representatives of thirteen commercial stations present. Also represented were Law-

rence College, a Milwaukee advertising agency, equipment manufacturers, and the press. The program included reports on FM growth, Hi-Fi, programming, multiplexing, automobile receivers, dealer promotion, and ad agency relationships. The group called for another meeting on October 7. The arrangements committee was headed by Prof. Harold Engel, WHA. The first project to be undertaken in an FM receiver count in certain communities.

The University of Wisconsin sponsored the first session of the National Community Theatre Training Center the week of July 13. Margaret Mary and John Wray Young of the Shreveport Little Theatre, with Prof. Robert E. Gard, Director of the Wisconsin Idea Theatre, headed the faculty of the Training Center which marked a new concept in specific training of community theatre leadership. Thirty students from throughout the country were selected to form the first class of the Center.

Kent State University conducted the 23rd annual High School Speech Institute June 19 to July 11 with 25 selected high school students pursuing a concentrated program in the speech arts, radio, forensics, public address, interpretation, and dramatics.

#### CURRICULA AND FACILITIES ADDITIONS

Completion date of the new Rehabilitation Center of the Stanford University Medical School has been announced as end of the Autumn quarter, 1958, an advancement of several months over the completion date originally announced. The Division of Speech Pathology and Audiology will be housed in extensive, fully-equipped modern quarters in this new center.

The Stanford Division of Speech Pathology and Audiology is introducing a new course this year. The offering is an undergraduate course, designed to acquaint students with subject matter, vocational opportunities and career areas in the fields of speech and hearing.

The Speech and Hearing Clinic of the Department of Speech of Northern Illinois University (DeKalb) is preparing to move into a unit which will be located in a newly constructed Health Center. The clinic will continue to provide services for the speech handicapped and in addition will add extended serv-

ices in hearing testing, hearing aid evaluation, and speech training for the hard of hearing.

Currently under construction at Louisiana State University is a new wing to the present Music and Dramatic Arts Building. This new addition is to be occupied exclusively by the Department of Speech. It will provide additional classroom and office space as well as a large TV studio which can also be used as an arena theater.

The Speech Department of Mount Holyoke College announces graduate study in the field of Speech Rehabilitation, leading to the M.A. in Speech and Basic Certification by the ASHA. Supervised clinical practice is provided at a nearby Rehabilitation Center. The program is under the direction of Miss Clarice Tatman, department chairman.

The Department of Speech and Dramatic Art at the University of Missouri is looking forward to adding new quarters to its facilities in the near future. A theatre wing will be added to the new Fine Arts building, with construction to begin this fall. New Speech and Hearing Clinic quarters, much of it air-conditioned, will be occupied this fall.

The Hofstra College Department of Drama and Speech offers a new program in drama commencing September—a major in theater arts. Within the framework of a liberal arts curriculum, the student undertakes an intensive curriculum in the field of theater arts, concentrating on either a production or performance sequence. In addition to the theater arts major, the Department offers majors in speech, dramatic literature, and speech-drama.

The Utica College (Syracuse University) faculty has approved a new core curriculum which will apply to all students matriculating after June, 1958. It includes a mandatory course entitled "Communications III—Speech," a 3-hour semester course including general speech as well as public speaking.

The Department of Speech at the University of Oregon now offers work leading to a Ph.D. degree in speech. A number of graduate assistantships and teaching fellowships are available for students interested in working toward the M.S., M.A., and Ph.D. degrees.

A graduate program leading to the M.A. degree in speech and drama was introduced this summer at the University of Portland. Paul E. Ouellette, head of the department, is in charge of the program.

A new type of internship program for graduate assistants is being instituted in the Department of Speech at the Pennsylvania State University this fall. The purposes of the program are to help meet the rapidly growing demand for speech teachers at a marginal cost and to improve the quality of teaching in the basic course. Each teaching assistant will work under the immediate supervision of a senior staff member. The assistant will observe all meetings of a class taught by his supervisor, help prepare teaching materials, correct papers, evaluate speeches, assume full charge of certain class meetings, hold student conferences, and discuss his work with the senior colleague. All assistants will meet regularly with Prof. Paul D. Holtzman, director of the program, for discussions and guidance. Only after such experience, and when the senior staff is satisfied, will an assistant be placed in full charge of a class. Research assistantships are similarly designed to give the student additional training in research methods as well as conducting research for the staff.

At the State College of Washington, Pullman, remodeling was completed during the summer which has provided the speech department with additional classroom and officespace and an experimental theatre.

Under the direction of Dr. Claude Hayes, the Speech Department of the University of Wisconsin is initiating a sequence of new courses this year to lead to the *basic* certificate in Hearing and will lay the ground work for the *advanced* certificate. The speech correction major has also been revised by the addition of new and more specialized courses organized around specific clinical entities. The Office of Vocational Rehabilitation sequence that leads to a master's degree in the rehabilitation of adults with speech and hearing disorders, initiated in 1957-58, will be further expanded in the coming year.

#### FORENSICS

The academic year 1958-59 marks the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Kent State University chapter of Pi Kappa Delta. Plans are in the making for a silver anniversary year opening

with an international debate with a team from Oxford University in the fall.

Prof. Robert P. Newman and Instructor Mary M. Roberts are directors of the William Pitt Debating Union, successor to separate men's and women's debate groups at the University of Pittsburgh. This past year the Union entertained five teams from other campuses, meeting them in a series of debates in 45 Western Pennsylvania high schools before audiences totaling 30,000 people. *Face the People* is a weekly telecast produced by the Union on Pittsburgh's community educational station, WQED.

The annual Novice Debate Tournament will be held at Temple University December 6. The tourney is for inexperienced college debaters. There will be four rounds of debate on the national topic.

The Eighth Annual National Contest in Public Discussion once more will be conducted by tape recording on the national discussion question. A team from each participating college will prepare a tape twenty-five minutes in length and record it at 7.5 inches per second. The deadline for the declaration of entry is November 15, and the tape itself must be ready for shipment by December 1. Last year thirty-two colleges and universities participated with Iowa State College, the University of Southern California, Eastern Illinois University, and St. Mary's University (Texas) reaching the final round. Full details concerning the contest are available from Dr. Wayne N. Thompson, Chicago Undergraduate Division, University of Illinois, Navy Pier, Chicago 11, Illinois.

#### IN THE CLINICS

The University of Southern California announces the expansion of its staff and program in speech pathology and audiology for Fall, 1958. Dr. Lee Travis will return to teach a course in psycho-therapy for advanced pathologists; Dr. Zelda Wolpe will teach courses in psychodrama and parent counseling; Miss Jacqueline Keaster will offer courses in pediatric audiology and hospital practice; Dr. Thomas Abbott will teach a course in speech disorders of the physically handicapped; Dr. Russell Haney will offer courses in diagnostic procedures; Miss LaVerne Sutherland will teach play therapy procedures for public school speech correctionists; and Miss Halldera Sigurdson will teach a course in lip reading and auditory training.

The Stanford Division of Speech Pathology and Audiology, under a grant from the National Polio Foundation, has three graduate students working as internes at Fairmount Hospital in San Leandro. These students are speech therapists, who work with post-polio cases, with special emphasis on the rehabilitation of adult aphasics.

"Counseling in Speech and Hearing Rehabilitation" was the general topic of the 1958 Summer Symposium offered by the Department of Communicative Disorders, School of Speech, Northwestern University. Sponsored by the United Cerebral Palsy Association, the Symposium attracted 110 registered graduate students and teachers of the handicapped and presented 22 nationally recognized authorities as guest lecturers.

The University of Minnesota Duluth Branch Seventh Annual Summer Speech and Hearing Clinic enrolled sixty youngsters for eight weeks, June 23 to August 15. Prof. Robert F. Pierce was assisted by eight clinician-therapists who are alumni or current majors.

A remedial speech program has been organized at the North Jersey Training School for the Mentally Retarded in Totowa Boro under the auspices of the speech department of the New Jersey State Teachers College at Montclair. College students supervised by faculty members will teach students at the Training School as part of their overall preparation in correction.

The Kent State University Speech and Hearing Clinic conducted its thirteenth annual Summer Children's Clinic June 17 to July 18 with 34 children and their parents participating in a concentrated program of re-education and therapy.

The University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee Hearing Evaluation Center, under the administration of the Speech Department, has been awarded a grant of \$18,792 by the U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, to improve and extend its facilities. The grant is to cover a three-year period ending in 1960.

#### ON STAGE

The University of Miami Press has completed plans to publish a Rare Books of the Theatre Series jointly with the American Educational Theatre Association. Barnard Hewitt of the University of Illinois Speech Depart-



ment is General Editor. One volume is to be published each year, containing materials either at present out of print or available only in a foreign language. The first volume, planned for 1958, will contain the principal sources of information about Renaissance Italian theatre and stage scenery in translations from the writings of Sebastiano Serlio, Nicola Sabbattini, and Josef Furttenbach by Allardyce Nicoll of the University of Birmingham, John McDowell of Ohio State University, and George R. Kernodle of the University of Arkansas.

### PROJECTS AND PRODUCTIONS

*University of Georgia.* University Theatre will open this season with John Patrick's *The Teahouse of the August Moon*.

*Northwestern University.* Outdoor Festival Theatre presented four plays in rotation during July. The repertory productions included *As You Like It*, *School for Wives*, *The Lady's Not for Burning*, and *Lute Song*. Four evenings of interpretative reading and recital were presented by the Department of Interpretation during the summer. On July 1 Charlotte Lee read Eliot's *Four Quartets*, Robert Breen read Carlyle's *French Revolution*, John Edwards read Saroyan's *Human Comedy*, and Wallace Bacon read from Shakespeare's history plays. On July 22 Sara Lowrey of Furman University presented a recital of Faulkner's *A Fable*. On the third program Robert Breen directed a readers' theatre production of *The Sorrows of the Young Werther: A Portrait of Goethe* by Andre Maurois. For the final program, Robert Breen directed a chamber theatre production of the novel *Duo* by Colette.

*Wayne State University.* A Theatre group of sixteen staff and students returned in May from a 12-week tour of nine cities in India under the auspices of the President's Special International Program for Cultural Presentations. They played in professional theaters and presented *Beyond the Horizon*, *Oedipus Rex*, *Where the Cross is Made*, *Pullman Car Hiawatha*, and *The Precious Young Ladies*.

*The University of Wisconsin.* Wisconsin Players: *Tiger at the Gates*, *Three Men on a Horse*, *Oklahoma!*, *Importance of Being Earnest*, and *The Corn Is Green*. Players will also produce a series of five Studio Plays, including a set of winning one-acts, which will be student directed, and a series of four Studio Play Readings.

### ON THE AIR AND FILM

The Radio-Television-Film Interest Group of the SAA reports the following significant research in progress:

Clarence Flick, University of Nebraska is working with west coast TV network divisions on the development of an instrument for analysis of content of broadcast and cinema programs.

Herb Seltz, of Indiana University's Radio and TV Service, is currently conducting a study of commercial television directors in twelve mid-western states, in an attempt to determine working conditions, union membership, salary, duties and the values of college training in directors' work.

To illustrate the relationships of the international motion picture to the arts of literature, painting, drama, and the dance, Jack Ellis of the Department of Radio-Tv-Film at Northwestern University, presented a series of films and commentaries during the summer. Some of the titles were *Les Enfants Terribles*, *Hans Christian Anderson*, *Story of Michelangelo*, *The Charm of Life*, *Marcel Marceau's Pantomimes*, and *Flamenco*.

Julian Burroughs, Jr., of the University of Michigan is concerned with the effectiveness of TV criticism in influencing opinions toward an educational TV series.

John Mercer and Orville Hitchcock of the State University of Iowa are experimenting with the use of lip synchronous film in teaching public speaking.

In the Division of Communication Arts at Boston University, Jerry Briscoe is working on a project dealing with the image of government propaganda efforts held by members of the armed forces.

Glen Starlin of the University of Oregon reports that the Oregon State System of Higher Education is conducting experiments in inter-institutional teaching by TV among four colleges and universities in the state; the study is being made under a grant from the Fund for Advancement of Education.

At Michigan State University, Hideya Kumata is undertaking a series of experiments in closed-circuit teaching by TV. They are concerned mainly with a comparison of effects by TV and face-to-face teaching on learning and attitude change.

### PROGRAM IDEAS AND SERIES

*University of Miami.* The Educational TV and Radio Center has contracted for a series of twelve half-hour films on *Ecology of Sea*

*Life* to be made primarily under water in the Bahama Islands in cooperation with the University's Marine Laboratory and the Radio-TV-Film Department.

*Boston University.* The University's educational radio station, WBUR, won the National Headliner Award this year for the best public service program series of any radio station in the United States. Sidney Dimond produced the series.

*University of Michigan.* *Progress of Mankind*, an anthropology series, and *Faces of a Giant*, ten programs on Russia today, were the spring semester offerings of the University over WWJ-TV, Detroit.

*University of Minnesota, Duluth Branch.* A new weekly series on speech, *Common Sense about Talking*, is being produced by the Department of Speech over KDAL-TV, Duluth.

*University of Oregon.* The University has just completed a series of experimental drama presentations over Radio Station KOAC. The programs made use of the "reader's theatre" style of presentation and included a brief analysis of the author's style.

*Temple University.* During the past year the Department of Speech produced a bi-monthly public discussion TV program over WHYY, the Philadelphia education station. Participants were drawn for the most part from undergraduates enrolled in the public speaking courses.

*Bob Jones University.* Two productions of *Unusual Films*, the Division of Cinema at Bob Jones, represented the United States at the International Film Festival in Cannes, France, May 14 to 18, 1958, and the International Congress of Motion Picture and TV School Directors in Paris. *Wine of Morning*, based on the first century novel by Dr. Bob Jones, Jr., president of the University, represented the University Film Producers Association in the feature-length, motionpicture class. *The Flying Angel*, a color short illustrating the film production facilities at Bob Jones, was shown to demonstrate the high quality of cinema training available in American colleges. The latter film also has been selected as an American entry in the 1958 Edinburgh Film Festival by the National Education Association.

*Union Theological Seminary (Richmond).* WRFK-FM, the Seminary's new radio station, was dedicated January 5, 1958. Contributing to the station's programming are such institutions

as Randolph-Macon College, Richmond Professional Institute, the University of Richmond, the University of Virginia and the Richmond Public Library. The transmitter was given to the Seminary in memory of Robert Foster Kirkpatrick, one of its alumni. On the air from 4 to 10 p. m., Monday through Saturday, and on Sunday mornings, WRFK-FM features classical music, opera, lectures in religion, devotional periods, and special programs from contributing institutions.

*The University of Wisconsin.* Two new radio production grants to WHA have been approved by the NAEB. Funds will provide production of *The Lives of Man*, an in-school series on major cultures of the world and their bearing on the lives of American boys and girls, and *Light Unto My Feet*, an adult series examining the major sources of basic ideas, concepts, and aspirations of the Twentieth Century American. The first series will be planned and written by Elizabeth and Milburn Carlson, and Prof. Menahem Mansoor, of the UW Hebrew Studies Department, will be content authority and writer of the second series.

#### FACULTY ADDITIONS AND APPOINTMENTS

*At Auburn:* Leonard S. Larsen, radio-television staff.

*At University of Southern California:* Gale Richards, associate professor of speech, to direct courses in speech education; Janet Bolton, assistant professor of speech, in oral interpretation.

*At the University of Florida:* Charles Kenneth Thomas, formerly director of the speech clinic at Cornell University, professor of speech, in phonetics and speech for foreign students.

*At the University of Georgia:* Russell Everett, director of the varsity debate team.

*At Northern Illinois University:* Alvin Goldberg and Stanley Weisberger, assistant professors of speech; Roger Hufford, instructor of speech.

*At Northwestern University:* Parke Burgess of Temple University has been appointed Assistant Professor of Public Speaking to replace Eugene Rebstock, who has joined the faculty at San Francisco State. Charles Hunter, who has been Acting Chairman of the Radio, Television, and Film Department, has been appointed chairman of that department.

*At Southern Illinois University:* Richard Uray, Radio-TV division.

*At Indiana University:* J. Jeffery Auer, chairman of the speech and theatre department; Robert G. Gunderson, professor of speech; Richard Harris and Orville W. Wensley, lecturers. Prof. Richard Moody has been appointed Director of the University Theatre.

*At Purdue University:* Robert S. Goyer, William M. Hardy, and John T. Rickey, assistant professor in speech; Richard S. Jackson, Henry Z. Scheele, and Ernest C. Thompson, instructors in speech.

*At Louisiana State University:* Waldo W. Braden appointed chairman of the speech department.

*At Northwestern State College of Louisiana:* Don Cain, instructor of speech and technical director of theater.

*At Wayne State University:* Ray Ross and Audley Grossman, assistant professors of speech.

*At the University of Missouri:* Clarence Brammer, William Burch, Ishmael Gardner, John Gow, William Hall, Bernard McCabe, and Charles Row, instructors in speech and dramatic art; Sanford D. Gray, clinical recorder.

*At Southwest Missouri State College:* Harry Carlson, instructor in speech.

*At Montana State University:* Erling S. Jorgenson, director of radio and television and associate professor of journalism.

*At the University of Nebraska:* Howard S. Martin, assistant professor of speech (radio and television).

*At Adelphi College:* Stanley Gould, assistant professor of speech and dramatic art.

*At Utica College of Syracuse University:* Robert J. Greene, instructor in speech.

*At the University of North Dakota:* Ronald Werner, instructor in speech and director of forensics.

*At Bowling Green State University:* Stanley Kahan.

*At Kent State University:* William E. Weidner, instructor in speech and supervisor of speech therapy in the University Training School.

*At Oberlin College:* Paul H. Boase appointed chairman of the speech department; Jerome B. Landfield, assistant professor of speech.

*At Temple University:* M. Irwin Kuhr, instructor in speech and director of forensics; David Reifsnyder, instructor in speech and director of the student speakers bureau.

*At Texas Christian University:* Robert Clyde Yarbrough, chairman of speech department and professor of preaching.

*At Abilene Christian College:* Charles Coleman, assistant professor of speech.

*At the State College of Washington (Pullman):* Gerald Phillips, director of forensics.

## PROMOTIONS

Raymond D. Wilderman, Northern Illinois University, to Associate Professor.

Owen Peterson, Louisiana State University, to Associate Professor.

Frances Lea McCurdy, University of Missouri, to Assistant Professor.

Robert S. Brubaker, Pennsylvania State University, to Associate Professor.

Gordon F. Hostettler, Temple University, to Professor.

John Borriello, Temple University, to Assistant Professor.

Dean Barnlund, Northwestern University, to Associate Professor of Public Speaking.

David Rutherford, Northwestern University, to Assistant Professor of Speech Correction.

Paul Reinhardt, Northwestern University, to Assistant Professor of Dramatic Production.

## PERSONALS

*From the University of Southern California:* The following were visiting professors this past summer: Ollie Backus and Robert Milisen, speech and hearing clinic; Burton Paulu, telecommunications; and Allen Downer, drama.

*From Stanford University:* Hayes A. Newby, associate director of speech pathology and audiology, has been appointed to the staff of the "News and Announcements" section of the *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*. . . . Visiting staff for the past summer session included Milton A. Valentine of the University of Colorado.

*From Northwestern University:* Helmer Myklebust, Professor of Language Pathology, was awarded the honorary Litt.D. by Gallaudet College in June. . . . Clarence Simon, Professor

of the Psychology of Speech, has returned after a year spent in the Department of Speech, University of Washington, Seattle. . . . Donley Feddersen has reduced his teaching load to one-third while serving as Program Consultant to WTTW, educational television station in Chicago. . . . Ernest Wrage, Chairman of the Department of Public Address and Group Communication, taught in the summer session at the University of Utah.

*From University of Colorado:* Visiting lecturers this past summer included Evelyn Allen who directed the correction workshop for the classroom teacher, and Lester Thonssen, professor of rhetoric at City College of New York. . . . Barbara Schindler has assumed her new duties as the Director of the Bureau of Speech Services. . . . Milton Valentine will return from Stanford to resume the directorship of the Speech Clinic. . . . Thorrel Fest has completed his turn as National President of Delta Sigma Rho and has been succeeded by Herold Ross of DePauw University. . . . Victor Harnack succeeded Prof. Fest as Divisional Chairman of DSR.

*From the University of Florida:* Margaret McClellan has returned to the University after a two years' leave during which she taught at Madison College, Harrisonburg, Virginia.

*From the University of Indiana:* Lee Norvelle, former chairman and director of the University Theatre, continues as professor of speech and theatre teaching graduate courses and undertaking special research projects. . . .

*From the University of Illinois:* Kenneth Burns acted as critic for the seventeenth non-competitive Choral Speaking Festival sponsored by Mount Mary College, Milwaukee, in March. . . . Thayer Curry has been reappointed to a second term as Audiology Editor of the *Journal of Exceptional Children*. . . . Martin Cobin is teaching three trial sections of the basic interpretation course via open-circuit TV, with an accompanying research program to evaluate the results; Ted Clevenger is assisting in this research. . . . Elmer Scholer, assistant in speech, has been awarded the Crown Princess Martha Fellowship by the American-Scandinavian Foundation for nine months of study in Norway; the study will be an analytical comparison of recreational systems with some emphasis on dramatics. . . . Henry Mueller will be on sabbatical leave during the 1958-59 academic year, studying the history of British film production and ex-

hibition at the British Film Institute; he will also attend film festivals at Edinburgh, Cannes, Nice, and Venice. . . . Prof. and Mrs. Barnard Hewitt toured England, France, and Italy this summer, visiting theatres and theatre collections. . . . L. M. Olson, assistant professor, addressed a conference on Motor Freight Selling at Kent State University and the convention of Real Estate Board Secretaries in Chicago.

*From the University of Illinois, Chicago:* Theodore Kundrat will be a half-time instructor this fall, replacing Joseph Wenzel, who will be in Urbana working toward the Ph.D. . . . Jack Arnold is the new Assistant Director of Forensics.

*From Louisiana State University:* The conference in honor of Dr. C. M. Wise was held May 16 and 17. Featured speakers included Dean C. G. Taylor of the College of Arts and Sciences at LSU, Dr. Loren Reid of the University of Missouri, and Dr. T. Earle Johnson of the University of Alabama. Over 150 persons attended the meeting.

*From the University of Michigan:* Edward Stasheff was on leave during the past year to work with the Educational TV and Radio Center. James Lynch of Indiana University replaced him for the year.

*From the State University of Iowa:* Sam L. Becker, director of television, will be on leave this year doing a post-doctoral study at Columbia University. He received a Mass Media Leadership Training Award granted by the Fund for Adult Education.

*From the University of Minnesota, Duluth Branch:* Robert Haakenson, chairman of the speech department, has been named a member of the Board of Trustees, Duluth Superior Area, Education TV Corporation (Channel 6). . . . Harold Hayes, director of the University Theater, was reelected to the Board of Directors of the Duluth Community Playhouse. Three "Encore" awards were won by the cast of *Detective Story* which he directed.

*From the University of Missouri:* While he was president of the SAA, Loren Reid had an active year as lecturer. He was principal speaker at the Pacific Speech Association conference at Hilo, Hawaii; was conference lecturer at the University of Michigan; met with the staff and students at Michigan State University; gave three addresses at the Oklahoma Speech Association conference and two at the twenty-fifth annual debaters' conference at Purdue; was



luncheon speaker at the annual meeting of the Speech Association of Missouri; and addressed students and staff members at Ohio University. . . . A. Craig Baird is now in his third consecutive semester as visiting professor, offering upperclass and graduate courses in bibliographical methods, philosophical foundations of speech, public address, and discussion. . . . Barton L. Griffith, recently of the Educational TV and Radio Center, is now in charge of upperclass and graduate courses in TV and radio. He is also moderator of the weekly program, "Missouri Forum." . . . Charlotte Wells was a principal speaker at the annual meetings of the state speech and speech and hearing associations of Louisiana and Texas.

*From Southwest Missouri State College:* Holt V. Spicer, debate coach, is on leave doing graduate work at Oklahoma University. . . . Leslie Irene Coger spent the winter quarter in New York making a study of schools of acting.

*From New Jersey State Teachers College at Montclair:* Harold Scholl, associate professor of speech, has been elected president of the Speech Alumni Association of Teachers College, Columbia University. Dr. Scholl is also treasurer of the New Jersey Speech Association. . . . Miss Ellen Kauffman, assistant professor of speech, recently supervised a survey of the speech skills of students in the East Rutherford and Highland Park (N. J.) public schools.

*From Utica College of Syracuse University:* Walter Keach, instructor in speech, has resigned his position to go into public school teaching. . . . Ralph N. Schmidt, chairman of the department, will take over the coaching of debate for the coming year. In June Prof. Schmidt was guest lecturer in the Effective Management Presentations course of the American Management Association's Academy for Advanced Management. . . . Frank Gualtieri has been acting as part-time coach of debate for the past two years, commuting from Syracuse Law School from which he graduated in June.

*From Kent State University:* Thomas R. McManus returned this year as instructor in public speaking and director of debate after a year's leave to study at Ohio State University. . . . Edward C. Hutchinson is on leave this year to study speech pathology at Ohio State. . . . Mrs. Katherine Moore Norton returned to her teaching duties after a year's leave to recuperate from major surgery. . . . Professors L. LeRoy Cowperthwaite, James N. Holm and John R. Montgomery participated in the SAA

"Department Day" program of the NEA convention in Cleveland June 30.

*From Oberlin College:* Charley Leistner will be director of forensics.

*From the University of Portland:* Rev. Robert Beh, C.S.C., assistant professor of speech, has been studying radio and television at New York University. . . . Paul E. Ouellette, head of the department, was guest director at Helena, Montana's Brewery Theatre for productions of *Sabrina Fair* and *Bell, Book and Candle*.

*From the University of Pittsburgh:* Dr. Jack Matthews, chairman of the speech department, has been elected to the Board of Associates of his alma mater, Heidelberg College. He is also the new president of the American Association for Cleft Palate Rehabilitation; his monograph, "Development of Tests to Measure Non-Intellectual Aspects of Officer Aptitude," has been published by the Air Force Personnel and Training Research Center, Lackland Air Force Base, Texas. . . . Dr. Barbara McIntyre, assistant professor of speech, was a member of the staff at the Elementary Language Arts Workshop Conference in June at Indiana, Pennsylvania. . . . William S. Tacey, professor of speech, spoke recently to the McKeesport Credit Union Chapter on "Try to Keep Still," and to the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, Westmoreland Section, Ladies Night banquet, on "Women Marry Men." He also served as speech consultant this past spring to the Duquesne Light Company, U. S. Steel Corporation, and the Blaw-Knox Company. Prof. Tacey has been elected president of the Pennsylvania Division, AAUP. . . . Dr. Robert P. Newman, associate professor of speech and president of the University chapter of AAUP, will be a delegate at the Brussels, Belgium Conference of the International Association of University Professors and Lecturers, September 1 to 6.

*From the University of Houston:* Miss Esther Eby spent the summer traveling in England and on the Continent. . . . Mr. J. Robert Oljan has returned from the Armed Forces and will be in charge of the forensic program at the University. . . . Dr. Genevieve Arnold is president elect of the Texas Speech and Hearing Association. . . . Dr. Don Streeter taught two courses for the National Chamber of Commerce in their Institute for Organization Management at the University this past summer.

*From the University of Wisconsin:* Prof. Jerry



C. McNeely has completed a stage adaptation of the TV play, *The Staring Match*, produced by "Studio One" last year. In collaboration with composer Daniele Amfitheatrof, he is also working on an opera version of the play. The Wisconsin Players produced the stage version this past summer. A stage adaptation of another of McNeely's dramas, *Two Tests on Tuesday* ("Climax!" production) will be toured by the UW Extension Division Bureau of Concerts and Lectures this coming season. The production

will be performed by a professional company of actors and will play in communities in Wisconsin, Illinois, and Michigan. . . . Miss Carrie Rasmussen, who is well known in the SAA for her work in elementary school speech training, has resigned from the Madison Public Schools and will teach part-time with the UW Extension Division. In her new position she will have time to participate in workshops, institutes and demonstrations in creative dramatics, choral reading, and elementary school speech.

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## MASTER OF ARTS DEGREE

52½ graduate quarter hours without thesis

45 graduate quarter hours with thesis

### major concentrations

Discussion and Public Address  
Speech and Hearing Disorders  
Communication Methodology  
Oral Interpretation

### cognate areas

Communication Methodology  
Psychology  
Theatre Arts  
Radio and TV

## DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY DEGREE

### majors

Public Address and  
Discussion.....

Speech Pathology  
and Hearing .....

Theatre Arts .....

Communication

Methodology.....

Mass Media.....

### minors

Speech

Pathology.....

Communication

Methodology.....

Oral Interpretation.....

Mass Media.....

Communication

Methodology.....

### cognate areas

Communication

Methodology

Psychology and

Special Education

English Literature

Business Administration

or Social Science

English Literature

## ROCKY MOUNTAIN SPEECH CONFERENCE

28th Annual General and College Meeting .....February 12, 13 and 21

28th Annual High School Meeting .....February 20 and 21

## 1959 SUMMER SESSION

7th Workshop for Directors of Forensics .....June 22-July 24

24th Summer High School Institute .....June 22-July 24

13th Summer Laboratory in Interpersonal Communication ....June 15-Aug. 14

12th Summer Workshop in Basic Communication .....June 15-July 17

### autumn quarter

September 18-December 5, 1958

### winter quarter

January 5-March 20, 1959

### spring quarter

March 30-June 10, 1959

### summer session

June 15-August 14, 1959

*for further information write:*

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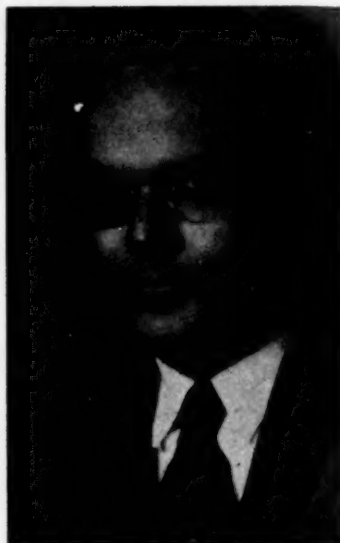
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Professor Yeager taught in Ohio and West Virginia high schools for one and one-half years 1922-1923, Ohio State University 1923-1927, University of Illinois 1927-1929, George Washington University 1929-1945, and again at Ohio State University since 1945. He served as Acting Head of the Speech Division, University of Illinois 1928-1929, Executive Officer, Department of Speech, George Washington University 1929-1945, and since 1945 he has been Chairman, Department of Speech, Ohio State University.

He is the author of *Effective Speaking for Every Occasion* and co-author with Dr. W. P. Sandford of a number of books, including *Principles of Effective Speaking* and *Practical Business Speaking*. He is co-editor with Dr. William E. Utterback of *Communication and Social Action*, *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, author of the study of Wendell Phillips in *History and Criticism of American Public Address*, and a contributor to the *World Book Encyclopedia*.

He has served as a lecturer and consultant for the United States Air Force at Wright Patterson Air Force Base, Air War College Maxwell Air Force Base, and at Headquarters USAF Washington, D. C., and for many business and professional organizations.

While at the University of Illinois he was co-founder of the Western Conference Debate League. In 1940 he wrote the high school debate topic analysis for the NUEA handbook.

He was president of the Speech Association of the Eastern States 1939-1941, and president of the Speech Association of America 1941. He also served the Speech Association of America as its first executive vice president 1945-1948.



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